PROFESSIONALS, CPD AND EMPLOYABILITY

BY

ANDREW TREVOR ROTHWELL

A DOCTORAL THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements

For the award of

Doctor of Philosophy of Loughborough University

23rd June 2003.

ABSTRACT: Professionals, CPD and Employability

This thesis presents the findings of a study of U.K. Human Resources professionals, and factors relating to their Continuing Professional Development or CPD. The study has investigated their attitudes to CPD (CPDV), what CPD they actually engage in (CPDE), and the statistical relationships between employability, CPD, and a number of biographical and attitudinal variables. As a subsidiary aim, the study developed and tested a scale of employability, as no appropriate measure was discovered prior to the field research being undertaken.

While the respondents engaged in CPD, they did so for reasons of professional commitment rather than a concern for their employability, and that the CPD undertaken tended to be either informal or organisationally-driven. Examination of relationships between the study variables using multiple hierarchical regression saw biographical variables explain 4.1% of the variance in the perceived value of CPD, and attitudinal variables a further 13.5%. Biographical variables explained 10.7% of the variance in employability, and attitudinal variables a further 30.3%.

The study has concluded that professional organisations may have some way to go before they achieve the comprehensive engagement with CPD that may become (and is already in some organisations) mandatory, and that this gap relates to individual's self-perceived needs in addition to aspects of record keeping and attitudes to the profession generally. More encouraging has been the development of a new measure of individual employability that compares well against the limited empirical literature in the field, and appears to be a distinct construct to subjective career success.. Overall, the study has contributed to our understanding of professionals, their attitudes and values, and especially their attitude to and engagement with CPD. Although it was not an original aim, the development of the scale of individual employability may well turn out to be the principal theoretical and practical contribution of this research, as a concept that becomes part of a new paradigm of the psychology of work in the 21st century.

Andrew Rothwell, June 2003.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Professor John Arnold for his guidance in this project, the University of Derby for their financial support, and especially the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch), without whom this research would not have been possible.

Finally, my thanks to Frances and Tom.

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my father, Trevor Wright Rothwell

Glossary of Terms

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AUA	Association of University Administrators
CIM	The Chartered Institute of Marketing
CIMA	The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants
CIPD	The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CIPS	The Chartered Institute of Purchasing and Supply
CPD	Continuous (or continuing) Professional Development
CPDE	Engagement with CPD
CPDV	The Perceived Value of CPD
EMP	Employability
HRM	Human Resource Management
OC	Organisational Commitment
PARN	The Professional Associations Research Network
PC	Professional Commitment
SCS	Subjective Career Success
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER 1: AN OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

1.1 Introduction

This thesis presents the findings of a study of professionals and their continuing professional development (CPD). Based on a sample of Members and Fellows of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, and conducted with the support of the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch, the aims of the research were to examine the value individuals place on CPD, what CPD they actually engage in, and how the value of CPD correlates with subjective career success, professional commitment, and employability. The development and testing of a scale of employability was a subsidiary aim, as no appropriate measure existed in the literature at the time the study was undertaken. The study has addressed a range of further research questions in relation to the variables employed, including the influence of age, gender, professional membership level and organisational level, bivariate relationships between employability, subjective career success and CPD, and the extent to which selected variables predict the variance in the perceived value of CPD, and individual employability.

The choice of subject matter reflects the author's interest and involvement in professional education and development, especially in relation to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. The research project has developed from a study of organisational commitment and psychological contracts, to a more individually based frame of reference that is believed to be more appropriate to employment conditions for professional people in the 21st century. The remainder of this chapter introduces the context for the research, and further explains the rationale for the choice of subject matter and sample.

1.2 Aims, focus and justification for the thesis

Much has been written about the changing nature of work and organisations, changing careers and career management (eg. Pieperl and Baruch 1997, Arnold, 1997), changing psychological contracts (eg. Herriot and Pemberton 1996, Rousseau 1995, Sparrow 1996) and the negative impact that all of this may have on individuals and organisations. However it is believed that little attempt has been made to construct a positive framework of reference for individuals to move proactively beyond merely coping in a turbulent labour market, to developing and sustaining a successful professional career.

The study focuses on professional workers, but it is necessary to establish first, at the start of the 21st Century, what is a professional? In the 1980's and 1990's there was an increasing tendency for occupations to: 'regard themselves as professional', (Morrow and Goetz 1988.109). 'Professionalisation' was defined as 'encompassing everyone who has a level of specialised knowledge' by Greenwood and Lachman (1996:565.); while the growth was also emphasised by Critten (1999:1): 'Coming out of the closet: we're all professionals now'. Who therefore, are professionals? Members of the CIPD, as professional workers who are generally employed in organisations, were chosen for this study because of their attributes such as engagement with CPD and learning, and having the potential for professional allegiances that go beyond organisational boundaries. It is suggested that these are individuals who may have a strong sense of self-worth in the employment marketplace; who, with a positive and proactive approach with a foundation in learning are not dependent on employer patronage, and who could see their profession as their primary referent.

At the same time, there has also been an increasing tendency for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) to be used as an umbrella term for professionals' learning and development activities, and for this to be linked to either their licence to practice or professional accreditation. However while the term CPD is widely used and

written about in a descriptive sense, there has been little empirical investigation of what kinds of CPD professionals engage in and why, and its impact on individuals' attitudes at and beyond work. For example, to what extent does learning through CPD influence perceptions of subjective career success - or vice versa? What influences, helps or hinders the intensity and effort with which individuals engage in CPD activity and can we measure this? Does engagement with CPD enhance an individual's self-perception of employability?

On employability, this is again something about which much has been written in the last decade, but as Rajan et al.(2000:23) observed: 'It is one of the few words that has gone from cliché to jargon without the intermediate stage of meaning'. The research set out to establish if this meaning existed, what it was, and how employability could be measured. Developing a scale measure of employability was not originally a primary aim of the research although ultimately this was to prove necessary given the scarcity and irrelevance of other measures in the field.

So what was the project about and why was it worthy of our attention? In a world where more and more occupations regard themselves as professional; where working lives and careers are much less certain, safe or predictable than they once were, how can professionals stay ahead of the game? Their professional associations urge them to engage in CPD, but why should they do this and what do they get out of it? To what extent does their CPD influence, or is influenced by, their self perceptions of career success and employability? This research aims to go behind the rhetoric, to establish what are the motives for engagement and practical benefits perceived by professionals related to their CPD activity. It is anticipated that the results may begin to explain the anecdotally low levels of engagement with CPD, may actually confirm positive attitudes towards CPD, and make connections to professional's perceptions of career success and employability.

As individual fields, CPD and employability have been found to be relatively under-researched, despite being widely written about. This research project aims to break new ground in connecting these, and with subjective career success, then examining

these fields within the context of professional workers in the UK, specifically focusing on members of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. This is an organisation with which the author has close links, and without whose cooperation the survey could not have been conducted. Due to the dynamic nature of the Human Resources field, it is suggested that for these individuals keeping up to date through CPD should be a high priority. Professional updating is a live issue for almost all professional organisations at the present time, yet there has been very little empirical research on what it is, and what benefits members might gain from engaging in it.

1.3 The structure of the thesis

The next chapter (chapter 2) considers the context of the research: the changing nature of work and organisations, and of managerial and professional careers. It also considers the nature of the research population, and presents literature review findings on professional workers and professional work at the start of the 21st century, with a particular emphasis on the 'management' professions, such as Human Resources. From the literature review, a sound operational definition of professionals for the purposes of this study, is established. This chapter also considers the nature of professional commitment, and the relationship that professionals have with their professional associations.

Chapter 3 presents a literature review in relation to the study variables. First, it reviews the literature on CPD including the limited empirical literature and selected descriptive literature, including an evaluation of the role of the professional associations, and their policies and guidance on CPD (especially the CIPD). It explores professionals' attitudes to CPD, and considers how these variables can be measured. Second, the chapter considers definitions of employability and explores the potential for measurement of the construct based on issues identified in the (largely practitioner) literature that existed at the time the study was undertaken. Finally, chapter three identifies the attributes of career success that are relevant to the present study, and evaluates a range of measures. Following the literature review, themes, issues and methodological implications will be

identified, the latter being explored more fully in chapter four.

Chapter 4 (methodology) therefore will draw together themes from the preceding chapter, and thus informed will present a rationale and justification for the qualitative and quantitative methods employed to gather primary data. In this project initial exploratory work was essentially qualitative using semi-structured interviews with a sample of twenty individuals from a range of professions. Analysis of the results of these, when combined with the literature findings, informed the design of the questionnaire that was administered to nine hundred and seventy three Members and Fellows of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (MCIPD's and FCIPD's) in the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch area. This was composed of a series of sub-scales that measured professional commitment, attitudes to CPD, andragogy (orientation to learn), self-perceptions of employability, and subjective career success. Where new scales were devised for the purposes of this study they were found to have acceptable internal reliability coefficients, with the exception of 'andragogy', which was not included in the final analysis. The questionnaire also included a listing of strategies for engagement in CPD, and asked respondents to identify the extent to which they were important to them as individuals.

Chapter 5 presents a brief overview of the results of the qualitative study, and considers how these informed the more substantial survey undertaken later. Research questions at this stage related to professionals and professional organisations, to continuing professional development and learning, and to employability and careers, with the broad aim of focusing the research and clarifying some of the issues for the survey stage. The chapter includes some reflections on the limitations of qualitative research in the context of this study.

Chapter 6 presents a consideration of the employability scale devised for the purposes of this study. As has already been stated this was not an original aim of the research but became a matter of necessity when no suitable scale was discovered in the literature review. Subsequently, an acceptable scale was found (Van Der Heijden 2002:53) although the one developed here shows better internal reliability with the present

sample. Factor analysis revealed the presence of two sub-scales, and their relationship will be considered. Chapter 6 also considers the issue of construct redundancy in respect of employability with particular reference to subjective career success. It is believed that the development of the employability scale represents a major outcome of this research and further refinement and testing will form a major part of the author's research activity beyond the scope of the present study.

Chapter 7 presents an overview of the exploratory statistical findings. The response rate of approximately 24% was believed to be acceptable given the exploratory nature of the research, the size of the sample, and the length of the questionnaire. The results were interesting in themselves, notably relating to the sample attributes (eg. age distribution, gender, job level). Most of the scales devised or adapted for the purposes of this study proved to be at least satisfactory, although there remains a need to devise a satisfactory measure of an individual's orientation to engage in learning. The chapter also presents the descriptive results of the 'CPD engagement' survey items.

Chapter 8 presents a further analysis of the results using SPSS, where the bivariate relationships and intercorrelations are explored. Briefly, some of the correlations appear modest but are nonetheless statistically significant as one might expect given the sample size (232). Overall however the sample were not as favourably disposed towards CPD as had been anticipated, especially given the lead that their Institute (the CIPD) has taken in promoting CPD. Furthermore, the sample's attitude to the value of CPD did not show as strong a correlation to the other variables (professional commitment, perceived employability, career success) as had been expected. Multiple hierarchical regression was used to predict the extent to which the other variables explained the variance in employability and the value of CPD respectively, while controlling for gender, professional level and job level. Finally, because there is a lack of research in relation to some of the variables, a series of research questions are addressed throughout the study in order to facilitate understanding of their significance for a professional sample.

Finally chapter 9 presents an overview of the research findings as a summary of responses to the research questions and hypotheses. It evaluates some further

implications of the research, including the appropriateness of the Institute of Personnel and Development's CPD policies and support given the diversity of its membership. It considers the implications of the findings of the hypotheses and research questions and their fit with the limited existing literature.The implications of this research for future conceptual and theoretical study are considered. As CPD is very much a 'live issue' for many professions at the present time, the practical and professional implications for institutes and their members are suggested. Finally, an agenda for continuing research is proposed, including the potential for extension and replication. The next chapter (2) begins with a consideration of the changing nature of work and careers, as the context of the research.

CHAPTER 2: THE PROFESSIONALS

2.1 Introduction

This literature review aims to provide a context for the research, to facilitate understanding of the literature relating to aspects of the research, to assist in the formation of research constructs, and to inform methodological decisions. The project focused on members of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development as professional workers who are primarily in management-related occupations, their Continuing Professional Development, and the relationships with self perceived employability, career success and professional commitment. This literature review chapter covers a corresponding range of topics, in the following parts:

- The changing nature of the work and organisational context
- The changing nature of management and professional careers
- Who are we studying and why, an historical perspective on professionals in the workplace
- Professionals defined
- Professionals in contemporary organisations and society
- Professional commitment
- Professional work in the 21st century: who professionals are and what they do
- Professionals and their relationships with their associations

A literature review relating to the study variables other than professional commitment (ie. Continuing professional development, career success and employability) is considered in chapter 3.

2.1.1 The work and organisational context for professionals at the start of the 21st century

Traditional organisational behaviour assumed that individuals (especially managers and professionals) were generally employed in large organisations, which supplied job satisfaction in response to key needs such as security, self respect and personal status, independence, and personal growth (Watkins et al. 1992:43, Rousseau 1995:93). From the 1940's to the late 1960's the demand for labour was high, and skill requirements for

work changed relatively slowly. Trade unions were strong and were able to slow or stop change at work (Kessler & Undy 1996:iv). Employee rewards, in terms of salary, security and status, were generally sufficient to offset the costs of loss of family life (for managers and professionals) or being locked in to one pattern of employment.

In the 1980's, in the face of growing competitive pressures, organisations went on crash diets to reduce costs but did not necessarily become healthier (Doherty 1996:471). The nature of Employee Relations changed, and management control in the U.K. was reasserted, supported by legislation. Downsizing and delayering eradicated many of the structures that had supported long-term careers. As Herriot and Stickland identified (1996:466):

' - The consequences of these developments for employees have been profound. The restructuring has changed the nature of the deal that most thought they had with their employer, viz: job security in exchange for loyalty and hard work. Many....feel both insecure and angry.'

These changes are now considered in detail. The following sub-headings generally follow Jackson et al (1996:1 et seq.) from the field of career theory.

Globally, shifts in economic activity are occurring. The world moves in and out of recession, and national or regional economies wax and wane. Jobs are seen to migrate to low-wage areas such as India, the Pacific Rim or Eastern Europe. Communications technologies mean that information processing can occur in remote locations where wage costs are lower, or time zones are favourable: companies on the West coast of Ireland process data while their American customers sleep. According to Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:6), the U.K. has established a lead in insourcing such work.

Nationally, shifts from a traditional U.K. manufacturing base to the service sector produced job decline and boom in these sectors respectively in the 1970's and 1980's, with a subsequent decline in financial services in the 1990's due to competitive pressures and the automation of formerly labour intensive processes. Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:3) suggested that 150,000 jobs or 15% of the total had been lost in financial services in the period 1990-1998, referring to this phenomenon as jobless growth:

requiring fewer people to produce more output. In all developed countries the proportion of the working population employed in manufacturing had fallen from about 40% in 1950 to 22.4% even by 1990 (Watkins et al. 1992:18).

Organisationally, cultures are changing, for a variety of reasons. The ownership and regulation of public organisations in the U.K. was affected by privatisation and deregulation in the 1990's. Throughout western economies, cost and competitive pressures have brought about downsizing, delayering and restructuring. Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:16) listed profitability pressures, cost pressures, customer expectations, price and non-price competition, technological change, shareholder pressures, regulatory standards, mergers and acquisitions and shorter product life cycles as being significant change drivers.

Kessler and Undy's 1996 IPD-sponsored study of psychological contracts identified that 57% of their sample organisations had had redundancies, 75% had experienced restructuring, 85% had introduced 'new technology', and 79% new working practices. Greater use of outsourcing can be seen, with organisations refocusing on their core competencies and emphasising cross-functional teamwork. A range of managerial fads, fixes and fashions have been tried (and often abandoned), as Herriot and Pemberton (1996:465) identified 'often under the banner of Human Resource Management'. These included total quality, learning organisations, and empowerment, as well as business process re-engineering and various so-called Japanese work practices such as kanban or kaizen. Many organisations (see, for example, Kessler and Undy 1996:32) had attempted culture change initiatives. There is an increased emphasis on performance management and pay-for-reward. The same study also described how organisations in the former public sector were becoming more customer-focused.

Individually, most people work more than their contracted hours (Guest et al 1996:34), on average nine hours per week. Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:43) identified an 'hours drift' in the financial sector, where knowledge workers were expected to work longer than contracted hours, whilst clerical and administrative staff were working variable hours around the set day. They describe this as part of an 'emerging ethos' of being paid for performance, not the time at work. Guest et al. suggested that those who work the

longest hours were identified as being afraid of losing their jobs, in upper management, who still seek traditional career advancement. Advancement opportunity was reduced through 'delayering' management roles. The disenfranchisement of the middle classes was a real concern for some individuals in the 1980's and 1990's as those who had previously held secure and lucrative positions such as in banking and finance lost their jobs, and public servants such as teachers and lecturers saw relative living standards continue to fall. Their children's University degrees no longer guaranteed a fast-track career due to saturation of that labour market, and even the value of their homes fell in the early 1990's, shaking the core values of British society.

The workforce itself is changing shape, in addition to the general changes described above. As Jackson et al. identify (1996:15), in the 1980's there was much speculation about the 'demographic timebomb' and the likely recruitment shortfall for employers, although recession meant their fears were ill-founded. There was an ageing workforce throughout Western Europe, although this differed according to ethnic group, with the effect that the future workforce will exhibit greater ethnic diversity. There has been a significant increase in the participation of women in the workplace, and they are having children later in life. The domestic circumstances of the workforce are changing with the decline of both the extended and nuclear families. There is mass withdrawal of men aged 55 plus from the workforce, due to both 'early retirement' and the effects of age discrimination on older workers. Guest et al. (1996:20) suggest the existence of a marginalised subsection of the workforce, with few qualifications, and no particular experience.

Jackson et al. describe (page 17) rising levels of educational attainment as one of the major long term changes in the population with very significant increases in the numbers of bachelor degree graduates, although the U.K. generally lags behind competitor nations in terms of educational attainment. Qualifications gaps between men and women are narrowing, with concern being expressed about younger male under-achievement. Vocational Education and Training (VET) initiatives such as NVQ's have sought to encourage people to take more responsibility for their development and skill updating, with a growing emphasis (in rhetoric and intention, if not necessarily in practice) on lifelong learning.

In addition to the sectoral changes in the economy described above, there is now a greater emphasis on employment in Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SME's) and self-employment, despite high levels of business failure. Numbers employed in manual, secretarial and clerical work will continue to fall, and numbers employed in professional, managerial, scientific and technical occupations will rise. Unemployment is now much higher than in the past, with on average more than one in ten males and one in seventeen females unemployed in the U.K., with higher figures for men at the extremes of the age range. These figures disguise changes in counting the numbers of unemployed introduced in the early 1980's - the real values are higher still. Traditional regional differences in employment levels persist, with Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland particularly affected.

Flexibility in employment is perhaps one of the most significant areas of change affecting work and workers, which had earlier been expressed as core and periphery work (Atkinson 1985). Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:8 et seq.) categorise this along four dimensions:

- temporal flexibility: the timing of work (eg. part time, weekends, flexi-time, twilight shifts)
- locational flexibility: (eg. remote working, hot desking, telecommuting, office hotelling)
- numerical flexibility: (eg. contract working, job sharing, annual or zero-hour contracts)
- functional flexibility: (eg. outsourcing, flexi-roles)

In general, such employment forms are:

- appropriate to growth areas of employment, eg. retail, services, technology based industries
- appropriate to the customer focused approach eg. providing out of hours banking services
- appropriate to the working needs of women eg. twilight shifts, termtime working - and young people eg. entry-level jobs (and pay) in call centres
- appropriate to the just-in-time workforce (Rajan and Van Eupen 1998:40) of agency

workers or short term contracts

- contradictory to traditional notions of job-for-life, security, traditional male employment.
- increasingly likely to apply to professional work and knowledge work (the focus of the present study)

- and on the whole are likely to become more rather than less prevalent. Rajan and Van Eupen observed that (1998:41):

' - more novel forms of working, like annualised hours, zero-hour contracts - are still in their infancy in most industries.'

Jackson et al. (1996) acknowledged that these changes would affect individuals, employers and society as a whole. For individuals, qualifications and training are emphasised, with a need for a more flexible approach. Employers are urged to consider more flexible employment policies, and investing in the skills of their workforces as a source of competitive advantage; whilst the social consequences again relate to a need to promote continuing training. Other key social issues relate to social exclusion, and the ability of national structures such as the welfare state to cope with increased dependency and the needs of an ageing population.

In spite of the above, as Guest et al (1996:34) suggest, ' - work retains a strong hold on our lives' for many managers, particularly.

' - work remains a central and enjoyable part of [their] life and they are willing to put in these hours and accept the consequences.'

Other benefits accrue from work according to Kessler and Undy (1996:v). These include experience, one's personal identity, trust, and shared interests with colleagues, which 'lie at the heart of the employment relationship and affect day to day behaviour'.

Rajan and Van Eupen (1998:13) suggest that what they call the new mindset has so far relied on three motivators: pay and employer brand (ie. the desire to work for a particular employer) on the positive side, and fear of redundancy on the negative side. That suggests that this does not deliver the answer to the question, for employed people, of what's in it for me? If Herriot and Pemberton's New Deal (1995) is a dysfunctional one, and 'nothing moves at the other end' as Sparrow (1996a:497) proposed, what does

the future hold for people at work, and those who hope to manage them? As Herriot and Stickland (1996:466) suggested:
'Organisations need the commitment of their employees to innovate, take risks and go the extra mile for the customer....'

Individuals who have the skills and self-reliance to master the new environment are the ones who will succeed. This study therefore focuses on potentially successful and self-reliant individuals at work, using quantitative and qualitative research techniques with a sample of professional workers who are generally in an employment relationship. The author's field of interest is the development of people in professional occupations, especially those professions with a 'management' orientation. The author has been engaged in management and professional education for most of his career, and seeks to investigate what the future holds for the managers and professionals, including those aspiring to such careers. How can they retain control of their careers in such a turbulent environment? The project therefore investigates their engagement with CPD, their attitudes to it, and how this correlates with their self perceptions of employability, professional commitment and career success. The following section examines the changing nature of management and professional careers.

2.1.2 The changing nature of management and professional careers.

In this part of the literature review consideration will be given to selected literature concerning professionals and their careers. What is the purpose of including this here? An individual's career, however defined, is the context within which professional life is located. In addition, perceptions of career success are a key part of the present research, although these are discussed in a separate section. Specifically, consideration will be given to basic concepts and definitions, beginning with a brief overview of traditional perspectives on careers, theorists, and concepts.

There are many definitions and conceptions of what is meant by 'career'. Jackson et al. (1996:8), drawing from a wide body of literature, describe 'the sense that individuals make of their history and the skills, attitudes and beliefs they have acquired' as their 'subjective career'; whereas 'objective careers' are the 'patterns of positions and work

experiences which occur in society'. In the present study both are significant: Beardwell and Holden (1994:303) suggested that professionals' perceptions, learning and development affect their patterns of employment and professional development, their rewards, and their relationships with employers and other professionals. Kanter (1989) distinguished 'bureaucratic' and 'professional' careers, the former characterised by traditional advancement through an organisation, the latter often having only weak links to employing organisations, and being defined by 'craft, skill,' - or - 'societally valued knowledge'. Those with 'professional' careers can command a price in the marketplace, and are less reliant on organisational progression.

Traditional perspectives on careers

The idea of the 'organisational career' was a powerful one, that prevailed in the literature into the 1980's (Arthur 1994:298), and will probably have been relevant to the early experiences of many of the sample, who entered work before that time. As Hirsh et al. (1995:11) identified:

'This picture of the career in terms of onwards and upwards has been central to corporate life in the post-war period.'

There is a wealth of literature describing the changes that have moved careers on from traditional expectations. In the present study, commentary on the contextual changes has been presented in the introduction, and it would be appropriate to say that in the modern era, taken for this study as being from 1975 onwards, the certainties associated with most traditional careers no longer existed.

Arthur and Rousseau (1996:29) proposed new meanings for some basic concepts which included the following:

'Career: old meaning: a course of professional advancement; usage restricted to occupations with formal hierarchical progression, such as among managers and professionals. New meaning: the unfolding sequence of any person's work experiences over time.'

'Organisation: Old meaning: a legal entity defining authority relations and property rights. New meaning: organising through networks, value chains and so on; a more dynamic, process-centred usage.'

The authors emphasised the importance of learning and personal networks, as well as providing a lexicon of definitional changes for widely understood concepts. Similarly, Nicholson (1996:41) described the new organisational paradigm as: 'a network of connected goals and structures..... ' where manager's roles are those of portfolio specialists. Nicholson proposed a systems view of Career Development, integrating people systems, job markets and information systems, including the utilisation of information networks for personal networking. Arnold et al. (1995:330) describe the demise of the linear career concept and the rise of spiral and transitory career concepts.

There is also an extensive body of literature on the effects of downsizing in organisations on careers, especially managerial careers. For example, Inkson (1995) conducted a longitudinal study from 1980-1992 of a sample based on members of the (U.K.) Institute of Management, to consider the effects of economic change on career stability. The study encompassed two periods of recession and identified increasing levels of discontinuity in managerial careers, and a declining tendency for individuals to buy into organisational culture. Inkson concluded that there was a need for increasing attention to be paid to career development, but in terms of personal rather than organisational values.

Herriot, Pemberton and Hawtin (1995) studied the effects of major change on mature managers in the Finance sector, linking career beliefs and evaluations to career intentions. They found that the managers no longer expected a traditional upward progression career, but did believe their jobs would get bigger, with more responsibility and variety. They did not believe however they would get much help from the organisation regarding their development, with the suggestion that (1995:185): 'responsibility for their own development had been offloaded on them.....'

Peiperl and Baruch (1997:7) described the demise of traditional hierarchically bound careers, through the rise of cross functional or geographic movement, to 'leaving the organisation behind' where individuals identified more with their profession than their company, possibly in an outsourced context. They suggested that for many employees work arrangements were actually moving back to a pre-organisational stage, of low

security, high risk and a location close to home (eg. through teleworking). The writers held out hope however, in the form of identifications with professions, agencies, and the community, possibly in the context of 'virtual organisations and globally linked careers'. These are characteristics relevant to the sample for the present research in that a higher than expected number of respondents were found to be working outside of formal organisation structures.

Thomas and Dunkerley (1999:157) studied 'middle managers' in downsized organisations and painted a gloomy picture. Their qualitative study showed a negative prospect for middle aged male managers, while women in similar roles often fell victim to traditional gender based stereotyping. Their methodology will be referred to later as it helped to inform the qualitative aspects of this project.

Boundaryless careers

We have established that for many individuals, careers are no longer associated with one organisation and linear progression. An alternative conceptualisation was described by Arthur (1994:295) as the 'boundaryless career', which has a number of distinctive attributes. These include moving across the boundaries of separate employers (eg. the typical Silicon Valley career), drawing what he called validation and marketability from outside the present employer (eg. academics, skilled workers), being sustained by extra-organisational networks (eg. real estate agents), not reliant on hierarchical progression, possibly involving radical change for non-work related (Eg. family, work-life balance) reasons, and being part of a future perceived by the individual as boundaryless - that is, without structural constraints from organisations. Arthur (1994:296) suggested that:
'a common theme to all these meanings is independence from, rather than dependence on, traditional organisational career principles.'

This concept of the boundaryless career has substantial utility for the present study. Professional workers draw validation (and marketability) from external sources - from their allegiance to the professional body and their ability to trade their knowledge in the employment market place. They benefit from extra-organisational networks, again

through their professional association or through 'old-boy' networking. Many professionals have had to reject the organisational career for sideways moves, retraining or portfolio working in order to keep pace with the changing employment marketplace; leading to a redefinition of what Mirvis and Hall (1994:365) call psychological success - the goals that we have for ourselves - later discussed as subjective success.

Bird (1994:337) suggested that there were both benefits (through autonomy) and risks with boundaryless careers, particularly in the context of knowledge creation. There is an assumption that independent individuals are effective learners, but stress may cause individuals to fall back on 'over-learned behaviours' (page 338), and become locked into dysfunctional behaviour patterns. 'Andragogy': the ability of individuals to engage with learning, is discussed further in part three of this literature review. Bird also noted the importance of professional networks and cited professional conferences as an important conduit for information exchange. Knowledge creation in careers, Bird suggested, was affected by the structure of industries and job markets, the networks that existed within them, and the individual's ability to cope with the new autonomy of the boundaryless career.

Within the boundaryless career literature, a number of further contributions to the present study can be identified. Jackson (1996a:617 et seq.) drew an interesting parallel with 'dance and drama' careers in a piece of research funded by the Arts Council of Great Britain. It was found that dance and drama careers are often short term, temporary, seasonal, involve work outside the chosen profession and generally can be similar to what many futurists (eg Handy 1989) say about the pattern of work in general.

Specifically, Jackson identified a number of factors as characterising the boundaryless career in Dance and Drama, which have utility in the present study in the context of maintaining *employability* - again, a construct that will be revisited later. These factors included working to get work: the importance of networking, connections, one's reputation, and the importance of professional training. He emphasised managing a variety of work: doing different things, such as radio and television, and sometimes having periods not in work: a portfolio or discontinuous career. Jackson observed that working inside and outside the profession was also a feature. Some respondents to

Jackson's study engaged in part-time or short term teaching for example. Similarly 'business consultants' or others who may originate in a range of professions often engage in part-time lecturing, itself an occupation (or profession?) subject to increasing casualisation. Meeting training needs on your own initiative while still earning a living was cited as a major area of concern. This could produce a major problem in the long term: if more individuals become responsible for organising (and funding) their own updating, will the difficulty (and cost) of keeping pace with this produce increasing skill redundancy among the wider workforce? Jackson also reflected on the need for individual resilience to cope with frequent periods out of work.

The contribution of Jackson's research is to enable the consideration of factors in the wider labour market based on lessons learned in one field, where the prevailing conditions have come to parallel those emerging in society as a whole. He concluded that issues such as the need for entrepreneurial skills, career management and advice, labour market knowledge, and the need for ongoing training were central to success in the dance and drama field. What seems apparent here is the transferability of these lessons to professional careers in an era of raised managerial and professional career expectations conflicting with declining security for managers and professionals in many fields. Thus we return to learning and training as the basis for career survival, with the individual not only in the driving seat, but navigating the route as well.

A similar approach was proposed by Jones and DeFillippi (1996:89) who considered the U.S. film industry, and who drew an analogy with Kipling's six honest serving men: knowing, in career terms, 'what, why, when, how, where and who'. They focused on combining industry and self-knowledge, with recommendations including professional networking, avoiding becoming a commodity, and developing career timing as in knowing when to leave and when to stay.

The extent to which individuals feel in control of their boundaryless (or boundary-spanning) careers was discussed by King (2000) who concluded that in such careers, career self-management strategies such as self promotion, ingratiation, network development, job content development and strategic choices of job move would enhance perceived control which in turn had a positive association with mental health.

King also noted that self-based careers should not be too widely promoted, and urged caution against adopting simplistic or too broad based approaches. She suggested that: 'the traditional career is still alive and well at least for some groups - ' - and that for such individuals, organisationally located career management strategies may still be appropriate.

In the preceding pages an evaluation has been attempted of the current state of careers for individuals, particularly professionals, in organisations. Changes to careers have been considered, with a range of perspectives including portfolio careers, boundaryless careers and career development. One's perspective on the future of careers depends somewhat on one's orientation towards optimism or realism. The former view, as expressed by Mirvis and Hall (1994:378) is of the 'path with a heart', where individuals will seek self-actualisation through a commitment to their life's work, where psychological success encompasses activities beyond organisational boundaries. They note however, that in a flexible future, the ability to form work relationships quickly will become very important, and emphasise the importance of social networks, as part of a broader sense of personal identity.

Realistically, one must consider an individual's abilities to cope with an uncertain future. While much of the preceding section has emphasised the transitory nature of careers in the at the end of the 20th century, are individual expectations still locked-in to what Inkson (1995:193) called 'rational, hierarchical, proactive careers'? Inkson emphasised the need for more realistic vocational guidance, particularly for graduates with managerial/professional aspirations. There has been evidence to suggest that this is happening: one example has been the Association of Graduate Recruiters (1995) report: 'Skills for Graduates in the 21st Century'. This emphasised the need for attitude change on the part of employers in respect of their graduate recruitment policies, and of graduates themselves in respect of their career expectations, and emphasised skills such as self reliance in career and personal development, teamwork, networking and negotiating. The report also emphasised (page 46) the need for graduates to learn from their career and life experiences, and to continue learning throughout their careers, attributable in part (page 20) to the shortening half-life of knowledge. Persuading the working population to buy-in to, and optimise, an uncertain future remains a challenge.

As Arthur and Rousseau (1996:28) identified:
'The shift from circumscribed careers to boundarylessness confronts us with a problem outside our previous experience. No norms and few models exist to tell us how to evaluate, plan, review, analyse, promote or otherwise live out a boundaryless career.'

Allied to the changes to work described at the start of the literature review the changed psychological contract has the potential to cause dysfunctionality in work relationships (Sparrow 1996) and for individuals to re-revaluate their priorities for work-life balance (Herriot and Pemberton 1995, Kaschube et al. 1996), their affective commitment or turnover intention (Kessler and Undy 1996), and the extent of their investment in the work relationship, or to engage in CPD (Herriot and Pemberton 1995, Makin Cooper and Cox 1996, Cavanagh and Noe 1999). This changed set of work relationships may have a consequence in somewhat variable responses to the field survey: one should not be surprised if some of the respondents feel bruised by their experiences of the millenial employment market.

This section on the changing nature of work and careers has been included to facilitate understanding of the context within which the professional sample work, and of the factors impacting on their mindset in relation to their work. This includes:

- for organisationally-located professionals, the idea of the 'organisational career (Arthur 1994) or the 'onwards and upwards' (Hirsh 1995) was 'central to corporate life in the post war period'
- By the 1990's this concept of career had declined for many people (Arnold 1995), and alternatives included 'the unfolding sequence of any persons work experience over time' (Arthur and Rousseau 1996)
- Other alternative paradigms included boundaryless careers (eg.Arthur 1994), , post-corporate careers (Pieperl and Baruch 1997), all emphasising the importance of networking, career resilience, and self-knowledge (Jackson 1996, Jones and De Fillippi 1996)
- although some studies found that the traditional career is still alive and well at least for some groups (King 2000)
- even for individuals in traditional careers, responsibility for development was often perceived to be 'offloaded on them' (Herriot et al. 1995),

- Thus careers move from a series of jobs to repositories of knowledge (Bird 1994), and organisations become platforms for learning (Defillippi and Arthur 1994), leading to the concept of the *learning career* (Rothwell et al. 1998)
- the changes described have may also implications for our understanding of career success, which is discussed later.

Given that many of the sample (and especially the older ones) will have spent a not insubstantial part of their working lives possibly exposed to a range of fairly bruising experiences, and given that the study focuses on CPD, then we might either expect some cynicism or apathy to the exhortations to 'do CPD' by professional organisations, or a recognition of the need to keep up to date in the face of change. There is a recognition in the practitioner literature of the outsourcing of traditional HR departments, so professionals are now being exposed to some of the changes predicted by for example Mirvis and Hall 1994, Jackson 1996a, and Pieperl and Baruch 1997. We might also consider whether CPD strategies provide professionals with the means to stay 'ahead of the game', and the support mechanisms that facilitate this. The next section of the literature review considers the individuals on whom the research is focused: professional workers, their role in the contemporary workplace, and their professional associations.

2.2 Professional Workers: A Literature Review

2.2.1 Introduction

This research aims to evaluate the relationship of professionals' CPD with their professional commitment, perceptions of employability and career success. This section of the literature review focuses on the workers who will be the subject of the field research, on professional workers in general, with later detail on the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development who are the focus of this study. Without wishing to pre-empt too much of the following section, let us first remind ourselves why these workers were chosen as the basis for this study, and then the manner in which the literature review will be approached. In this section of the literature review we will focus on identifying who professionals are and how they can be defined for the purposes of this

study. Considerations include which professionals we are looking at; what are the key issues facing professionals at work, professional commitment, and the role of professional organisations at the start of the 21st century. In later sections we will examine the literature relating to the variables under investigation: CPD, employability and career success.

First of all in this section, traditional perspectives on professional workers and some early definitions, focusing on the period up to 1975, a period characterised by growth in the numbers of professions and professionals, and expectations of linear careers. The contemporary perspective takes us from 1975 to the present, as a period characterised by change: in the numbers and distribution of professional workers, in their role and status, in changing professional attitudes to work and about work, and changing perceptions of professionals and their skills.

What is the basis for the temporal breakdown given here? It is believed that traditional values of social distance and respect changed after the second world war, and fundamental economic change resulted from the OPEC oil crisis of 1975. It is suggested that the latter is the point from which economic discontinuity became the new reality rather than the predictability and continuity that organisations had believed in and attempted to control or plan for.

2.2.2 Traditional perspectives on professional workers

According to Elliott (1972:2), 'the name profession is widely and imprecisely applied to a variety of occupations', and even then was fraught with definitional problems. Elliott quoted a 1945 Monopolies Commission report which suggested that professions offered: ' - a specialised skill and service, an intellectual and practical training, a high degree of professional autonomy and responsibility, a fiduciary relationship with the client, a sense of collective responsibility for the profession as a whole, an embargo on some methods of attracting business and an occupational organisation testing competence, regulating standards and maintaining discipline.'

Elliot distinguished pre-industrial and post industrial trends, where professionals in the

former context made only a marginal contribution to the social system or economy, and were often composed of the 'younger sons of the gentry' (page 27). Latterly, Elliot identified the rise of 'occupational professionalism' based on specialisation of knowledge and task. These 'technical and service professions' often followed the example set by architects where a period of apprenticeship was followed by examinations and professional membership. Elliot also distinguished (page 58) between the older, self employed or 'higher professions', and the 'newer professions' who were generally salaried employees, the latter being the principal area of growth in this century. Elliot charts the rapid rise of the number of professional associations in industrial society, and comments on the relative status and income of different professional groups even though they may notionally belong in the same category: the example of the clergy, with barristers, lawyers, doctors and dentists is given as a contrast.

Watkins et al. (1992:8) identified five 'traditional' groups of professionals, distinguished by their origin against time periods. These were:

- The pre-industrial professions, which developed from the 16th century and were well established by the 18th, were clergy, doctors and lawyers and as he suggested: 'claimed expertise over the overriding concerns of early society - the soul, health and justice' (page 8).
- The industrial era, which saw the transformation from an agrarian to an industrial economy, with the rise of the civil and mechanical engineer, the industrial chemist, the accountant, the banker.
- The 'welfare state' of the mid-twentieth century saw the rise of teachers, social workers and welfare professions.
- The enterprise culture of the latter half of the 20th century saw the rise of what Watkins et al. refer to as the enterprise and management professions: marketing and personnel.
- Finally the post-industrial era includes the rise of new professionals in areas such as broadcasting, public relations and information technology; the latter category including knowledge engineers, software documenters, network designers and information brokers.

Table 1 'Continua in the professional ideal type', from Elliot P., (1972), 'The Sociology of the Professions', Macmillan, page 97.

NON PROFESSIONAL			*PROFESSIONAL*
Technical craft skill	———	*knowledge*	*broad, theoretical knowledge used in*
			V
Routine	———	*tasks*	*nonroutine situations to reach*
			V
Programmed	———	*decision making*	*unprogrammed decisions according to*
			V
Ends decided by society	———	*authority*	*Ends (derived from knowledge) decided by society/ institutions in it & supported by*
			V
Other or non-work	———	*identity*	*occupational group because work and occupation are*
			V
Means to non-Work ends	———	*work*	*central life interest and also the basis for*
			V
occupational/ class advancement	———	*career*	*individual achievement which involves meeting initial entry qualifications through*
			V
limited	———	*education*	*extensive education showing skill and meeting other latent status require-ments involved in the*
			V
Specific	———	*Role*	*Total role (that is expectations extend beyond expertise and work situation)*

Ackroyd (1996:602) identified the emergence of professional organisations such as the Law Society (1824), Civil Engineers (1818), the British Medical Association (1854), although:

' - the rash of significant modern professional associations (including accountants, chemists, electrical engineers etc.) did not occur until the end of the nineteenth century.'

Taking a longer term perspective, Ackroyd identified periods of remission of influence of professionals (including, he suggested, the late 20th century). Whether or not one agrees with this evaluation of the prevailing state of affairs, there is considerable merit in the points made: for example in industrial organisations where (page 603):

'Engineering skills became repackaged as the property of particular occupations employed within organisations - professional groups developed in such a way as to be effectively excluded from control of their organisations.'

Ackroyd contrasted this U.K. situation with the German, French and U.S. example where qualified engineers tended to become directors of their enterprises. Thus the professional as 'organisation man' lost some of the autonomy of the original free-standing professions, but acquired positions of privilege in corporate employment, as custodians of 'systematised profesional knowledge' (1996:604).

The postwar period was characterised by the increasing professionalisation of the labour force (Hall 1968:92), with once marginal professions striving for professional recognition. Hall observed that work in general was at that time becoming increasingly organisationally based, which also held true for the established professions as well as the professionalising occupations. He also emphasised the importance of socialisation during the professional training programme as influencing the strength of professional attitudes within a particular group. Elliot (1972:59 et seq.) identified that teaching was the largest professional occupation in 1950:

' - employing over 300,000 people and making up one-quarter of all professionals. Engineers accounted for just over one-fifth, with nearly 250,000 people.'

Elliot noted however that as a proportion of the total labour force the percentage of professionals was still small: 6% in 1951. Discussing the idea of professionalism, Elliot provided us with a perspective on attitudes about what the concept meant in this postwar

era, shown in the table above (table 1). Elliot maintained that the diagram included continua relating to professional behaviour outside the work situation and that this distinction meant that professionals constituted a distinct group in a social context. Elliot also discussed professional careers noting that the new professions gave much greater opportunities for advancement than the older professions which had relatively flat hierarchies. Elliot also observed the ability of professionals to function in a labour market beyond the organisation, identifying them as the migratory elite operating in a national or even international job market. He identified that (page 109):
'Geographic mobility among the professional and managerial middle class is a familiar feature of modern society.'

Watkins (1992:43), taking an historical view, noted that the hierarchical organisations of the 1950's and 1960's gave professional employees the opportunity for high levels of security, self respect and status, independence and personal growth, within organisational constraints. In return, employees were expected to give employers priority over and above their interests of personal relationships and lifestyles:
'This expectation was given validity by the assumption that personal identity and self-worth are derived from achievement and success at work, and gave rise to the stereotypical organisation man'

Watkins et al. noted that for most, the traditional rewards of 'organisation man' - job security, high income and career progression, were sufficient to offset the high personal cost, for example of time through working long hours which was to become an enduring feature of UK middle class life - this predated any notion of work-life balance.

Kerr et al. (1977:332), though just located in the modern era, expressed the postwar characteristics of professional identity and professionalism well, with the following list, though their extensive referencing has been omitted here for the sake of brevity:

- Expertise: normally stemming from a prolonged period of specialised training in a body of abstract knowledge
- Autonomy: a perceived right to make choices which concern both means and ends
- Commitment: to the work and to the profession
- Identification with the profession and with fellow professionals

- Ethics: a felt obligation to render service without concern for self interest and without becoming emotionally involved with the client
- Collegial maintenance of standards: a perceived commitment to help police the conduct of fellow professionals.

Kerr et al. did however acknowledge that it was more useful to discuss *professionalisation* in terms of continua, as different occupational groups would vary in their location along the different dimensions. Elliot (1972:130 et seq.) extended the discussion to the totality of the professional role, concerned with social visibility, the blurred boundary between work and non-work, and the requirement for standards of behaviour and life-style associated with professional identity and status.

The preceding section contains much definitional material that encompasses the traditional perspectives on the post-war professional worker. The purpose of including this section was to provide an historical context for contemporary professional attitudes, values and public perceptions. Even by 1972 however, Elliot had identified some cracks in the rock of the traditional professional attitudes and values. He referred to confusion over the scope and definition of the professional role, particularly with reference to UK health service doctors: this crisis as he termed it was in fact to get worse over the next two decades due for example to the rise of managerialism in the N.H.S. The professional/managerial role conflict is a theme that will be returned to below. Elliot also referred to crises of confidence (page 125) which he believed may affect the traditional professions, due to tensions at the interface between social responsibilities and goals (such as health care or education) and their role as custodians of professional skills and knowledge.

The competing loyalties of professional workers: to their organisation or to their profession, has been the subject of academic debate for several decades. Wallace (1995:228 et seq.) summarised much earlier work (eg. Parsons 1957, Goode 1957, Ben-David 1958, Blau and Scott 1962, Scott 1966, Sorenson 1967) from the bureaucratic era on the professional-bureaucratic conflict model, according to which, as Wallace (1995: 228) suggested:

'There is an inherent conflict between professional and bureaucratic goals and values

that results in competing loyalties among salaried professionals'

It was evident by the 1970's that substantial numbers of workers in a range of occupational groups were striving to be identified as professionals and that substantial numbers of these, and members of many of the older professions too, were employed in large organisations.

2.2.3 Professionals and the Professions from 1975 to the early 21st century

In this section we will first seek to identify what we mean by professionals at the start of the twenty-first century. We will then examine the contemporary position of professionals, especially those who work in or with organisations, as a means of defining and understanding the values and attitudes of the sample, and locating them as professionals in the contemporary context. Watkins et al. (1992) identified substantial growth in the numbers of those categorised as professionals by the end of the 20th century. While there is general agreement in traditional terms as we have seen in the preceding section, in the contemporary employment context the picture has become somewhat blurred due to the so-called professionalisation of a wider range of occupations.

Watkins et al (1992) took as their definition classifications from the UK Standard Occupation Classification, to include some of Major Group 1: Managerial and Administrative occupations; and all of Major Group 2: professionals. Watkins has included (page 9 et seq.) many of the traditional occupational groups one would normally refer to as professionals (the law, teaching, architecture), new professions from the early-mid 20th century era of corporate growth such as marketing and personnel, and groups from the public sector bureaucracies such as the Civil Service. Most of these share many of the features identified by Elliot (1972) and Kerr et al. (1977), such as including the existence of a qualification-awarding professional association.

Wilson, in Elias et al. (1995:27 et seq.), identified professions as being composed of individuals who take many years to educate and train, representing a 'major investment

from the individual's point of view and on the part of society as a whole', with many graduates. This group formed 9% of total employment in 1994, compared to 8% in 1981. He suggested (page 31):

'The professional group includes all occupations that normally require a specific degree or equivalent professional qualification, such as judges, accountants and teachers.'

A key feature of these groups identified by Wilson is the high level of qualifications held, who suggests that (page 31):

' - in recent years a degree or equivalent professional qualification has been a prerequisite for entry into the group.'

Other characteristics include geographical mobility, membership of professional institutes, and an increasing qualification profile across all groups, and a rapidly increasing female presence, albeit from a low base in some categories such as science and engineering. Wilson suggested that the trend over the period 1994-2001 would be for these groups to have growth among the fastest of all occupational groups, increasing to around 10 per cent of the total labour force by 2001. Wilson noted that there appeared to be excess supply of highly qualified individuals which tended to produce a spill-over effect into managerial and associate professional occupational groups such as nursing or technician level engineering.

Reed (1996:582) categorised professionals in relation to: 'their respective knowledge bases, power strategies, and organisational forms.' Reed first identified the 'independent liberal professions of the typical Anglo-American form'. As examples he cited doctors, lawyers and architects, as:

' - the custodians of occupational knowledge and skills':

' - abstract, codifiable and generic knowledge allied to complex tacit skills derivable from, but not reducible to, rational scientific knowledge acquired by protracted periods of study in higher education.' (page 584)

Thus Reed identified the power strategy of the independent liberal professions as one of: 'monopolising and policing abstract knowledge and related technical skills as they are applied to specific areas of work'. (page 584). They operated what Reed called 'closure' in that they control entry to the profession, but also engender a spirit of collegiality while maintaining occupational hierarchy and defending or policing the boundaries of the occupational division. Reed argued however (page 587) that these occupations are

neither as liberal nor as independent as they once were, due to political, economic and technological change and the de-professionalisation of their knowledge base.

Secondly Reed identified the organisational or managerial professions located in large private and public sector bureaucracies. Their knowledge base is identified as being more organisation-specific and to (page 584):
' - lack the degree of abstract codification and generic application typical of the established professions.'
Although their knowledge base was thus more fragmented, Reed suggested they were still able to operate occupational closure and therefore 'credentialism stands at the core of their power strategy' (page 584), in that they control entry by restricting licences to practice. These professionals, Reed suggested, benefit from bureaucratic rationalisation and control strategies by the validation suggested by their professional credentials and expertise. Accountancy, as a checking and control mechanism within organisations is a likely example - and the closure argument is supported by the anecdotally low pass rates of some professional bodies' examinations. More recently it is observable that the Financial Planning industry in the U.K. insists on qualification based accreditation for practitioners. Reed observed (page 589) that 'organisation-specific expertise as a power base is becoming increasingly problematic' - placing even more emphasis on generic knowledge owned by the profession.

Ackroyd (1996:600) suggested that professionals in organisations, whom he called new model professions, derived power from what he called 'double closure', whereby they combined closure in the labour market through their professional organisations and licencing restrictions (thus controlling the labour market and recruitment), and control inside organisations through their informal organisation, often with the implicit collaboration of managerial structures. Ackroyd (page 612) suggested that professionals have no problem coping with changes to organisations such as cost-cutting, and emphasis on teamworking, due to the often collaborative and collegial nature of their workplace interactions. Ackroyd's research suggested that the casualties of organisational change such as delayering are non-professional managers and administrators, not the professionals.

Whittington, McNulty and Whipp (1994::64 et seq.) also emphasised the shift to a market orientation in professional service firms These outsourced professional services are described as feeding off large organisations for work and status. Reed described these (1996:590) as being found in sectors where the emphasis is on the future value of their contribution rather than the immediate payoff, and tending towards networks as an organisational form. They are typified by occupations such as financial and business consultants, project/R & D engineers, computer and information technology analysts, or in the UK's Health Service, some aspects of Human Resources such as training or outplacement consultancy. In the present study the number of respondents who worked in this way was an unexpected outcome of the field research.

Greenwood and Lachman (1996:565) suggested that our view of the professions and their role was threatened by discontinuous change, by access to information, and by changes in the size and scope of professional membership:
' - this has reached the point where the quest for professionalisation seems to have encompassed everyone who has a claim to a level of specialised knowledge.'
Critten (1999:1) suggested (in an article entitled 'Coming out of the closet - we're all professionals now') that a key characteristic of being a professional is one's is recognition in the public domain by other professionals, thus defining professionals by the social context in which they practice.

Increased participation in Higher Education is likely to bring with it a greater number of people with graduate/managerial/professional work and career expectations. Wilson (1996:9) identified that in the period 1970-1987 the polytechnic sector in the U.K. had produced a 16-fold increase in graduate numbers. Even the 'old' universities had produced a 50 percent increase over the same period. Within these figures there was decline in engineering/science graduates, with the bulk of the increase coming from the social sciences. Wilson (1996:13) identified trends in the 1990's that:
' - engineers and technologists are expected to increase their share at the expense of natural scientists, while business and finance professionals gain at the expense of architects and town planners. Computer analysts and programmers are one of the fastest growing categories'.

What are the implications of the trends and changes described above for those professionals who are the focus of this study: Personnel and Human Resources practitioners? As individuals found mainly in corporate employment they have seen growth in both numbers and status in the latter part of the 20th century, from the 'welfare officers' of the mid 20th century, to the personnel management 'administration' approach of the 1970's, and then an increasingly strategic emphasis in the professional knowledge base, an increasing acceptance of their presence at the organisational 'top table', and the profession's acquisition of Chartered status. Their numbers were swelled by increasing numbers of business graduates, notably women, and these trends are reflected in the sample. As professionals in organisations however, they serve two masters: they are expected to execute a corporate agenda which may sometimes be distasteful, such as redundancy or dismissal, while abiding by the professional ethical values and standards codified in employment law and the Institutes' own codes of professional practice. The next section considers commitment to the profession, as distinct from commitment to the organisation.

2.2.4 Professional Commitment

As professionals, the sample who are the focus of this study are members of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. In order to ascertain their level of connected-ness, attachment to, or the extent to which they may be influenced by the Institute, Professional Commitment has been included as one of the variables in the study. The following is a brief literature review which is intended to underpin the use of the relevant survey items. Before proceeding, a brief explanation is offered as to why professional commitment and not organisational commitment has been included in this study. Certainly, it has been noted that studies which exist in similar fields (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 2000) have tended to include organisational commitment (OC) as a variable. In this study it has been specifically excluded for a number of reasons. First, it is the author's intention to focus on the individuals as independent professionals, their attitudes to CPD, career success and employability, rather than as employees of organisations - which not all the sample are, anyway. Second, there is a growing body of research that suggests that OC as a construct is less than relevant at the start of the 21st century (McKendall and Margulis 1995 & 1996, Baruch 1998) or

is at least a complex and multifaceted construct (Mowday 1998, Cohen 1999).

McKendall and Margulis (1996:32) proposed a new approach based on employee empowerment:

'Employees can find fulfillment through a commitment to the value of hard work, to the quality and content of their work, and to their occupation, profession or career. These types of commitment tend to be life-long, commitments to a specific organisation or job are shorter term. Interestingly, people committed to their professions tend not to be committed to their organisations. Commitment to one's work or profession is longer lasting and ultimately may serve the employee and the employer better than commitment to specific job or organisation'

Watkins (1992:44 et seq.) suggested that successive waves of change had fundamentally altered the perceptions of professional workers towards their employers and loyalty, especially among public sector professionals. Watkins described the impact of new structures, flatter hierarchies, outsourcing and performance management on professionals in organisations. He suggested that professionals adopted survival tactics such as (page 44):

' - psychological distancing from work or loyalty to one's craft or profession rather than the organisation -'

Watkins suggested that while traditional values emphasised devotion to duty and willingness to voluntarily work long hours, and while intrinsic rewards for professionals remain high; changes to employment security, contractual tenure, changing occupational patterns and changing organisational structures produced changing attitudes to work, and may have added a transactional dimension to the professional psychological contract, meaning a greater orientation to simply work for money: as one respondent suggested:

'My attitude to work is fairly hard headed. It is a business contract'.

Mirvis and Hall (1994:375 et seq.) suggest that professional's organisational identification lies less in organisational allegiance - they are more likely to say 'I do X' rather than 'I work for Y', and the organisation is, according to Mirvis and Hall, simply a place where professionals do their work, thus implying that the organisation-loyalty

relationship may be of little consequence. Kaschube, Wittman and von Rosensteil (1996:522) articulated the changing attitudes in a German context as 'Career, yes, but not at all costs!', this being the attitude of young candidates entering professional life:
' An increased need for autonomy has made advancement and career orientation only one possible way to plan one's professional life, especially among those who in the past were predestined to be career oriented.'

The researcher in the present project had a strong desire to avoid being drawn into the vast and self-absorbed literature on commitment of various sorts, noting for example that work, profession and career are used interchangeably in some studies. The aim was to produce a piece of research made distinctive by representing a focus that is more appropriate to the professional mindset at the start of the 21st century, with a focus on the self, the individual, their development, their employability, and their career success.

In spite of the above comments, by including professional commitment as a construct under scrutiny one is inevitably influenced by the OC literature, even if only in respect of definitions. For example, Steffy and Jones (1988:196) provide a flexible definition as:
' - an attitude or psychological bonding, defined in terms of an individual's loyalty to, investment in, identification with, and/or involvement in some cause, group or institution -
- We might likewise expect more committed individuals to extend greater energy and effort toward their commitment reference, as well as be less prone to quit, withdraw, or deviate in their performance.'

As an example of the apparent interchangeability of labels for different types of commitment, Blau (1985, 1988) drew on earlier work (including Hall 1971, Morrow 1983) in his attempt to measure and operationalise what he called career commitment as distinct from other work-related commitment constructs. He defined it (1985:278) as: ' - the attitude towards one's profession or vocation'.
Blau (1985:286) likened nurses (his study) to academics, scientists, doctors, lawyers, engineers; in that:

' - membership in such a profession goes beyond a specific job or the organisation where one works.'

He acknowledged the restrictive nature of the terms *profession* and *vocation* but determined that these were necessary to make the concept distinctive from work commitment and organisational commitment. The existence of a perception of work relationships as existing beyond rather than being confined to the organisation is a key attribute of the present research. However Blau's use of the words profession and vocation interchangeably is confusing, particularly when he was actually discussing commitment to career. In reviewing the literature in the field he identified various perspectives and determinants of career/profession/vocation commitment including individual differences and situational characteristics in the workplace. Blau suggested specific approaches to measuring professional commitment as including the extent to which individuals engage in professionally related activities, such as reading journals, attending meetings, or joining associations, or their reluctance to leave the profession (after Thornton 1970).

Professional commitment is particularly appropriate to the present study when treated as a separate construct. How can this be defined, and is professional commitment related to or the same as work commitment? A useful contribution was Aranya, Pollock and Amernic's (1981:280) derivation of a 'professional commitment scale', based on the very extensively used Organisational Commitment Questionnaire or OCQ (Porter et al. 1974, Mowday, Steers and Porter 1979), and included here as table 2. While this is obviously a fairly crude adaptation (simply changing the word organisation for profession), it has utility in the present study in informing items for the research instrument, and was itself widely used (eg. Meyer Allen and Smith 1993:439). Aranya et al. reported an alpha coefficient of 0.87 for their scale as compared to 0.91 in Porter's original.

Aranya, Pollock and Amernic (1981:271), on the professional commitment of accountants, defined this as the relative strength of their identification with, and involvement in, their profession, including (from Porter 1974): belief in and acceptance the profession's goals and values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of

Table 2 **PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE**

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help make my profession successful.
2. I talk up this profession with my friends as a great profession to be associated with.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this profession [r]
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working in areas that are associated with this profession.
5. I find that my values and my profession's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this profession.
7. I could just as well be associated with another profession as long as the type of organization in which I worked were similar. [r]
8. Being a member of this profesion really inspires the best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to work in areas that are not associated with this profession. [r]
10. I am extremely glad I chose this profession over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There's not much to be gained by sticking with this profession indefinitely. [r]
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this profession's policies on important matters relating to its members. [r]
13. I really care about the fate of this profession.
14. For me this is the best of all professions to be a member of.
15. Deciding to be a member of this profession was a definite mistake on my part. [r]

The Professional Commitment Scale: from Aranya N., Pollock J. and Amernic J., (1981), 'An Examination of Professional Commitment in Public Accounting', Accounting, Organizations and Society, Vol. 6, No. 4, p.280

---

the profession, and desire to maintain membership of the profession. Their study also emphasised professional independence. They hypothesised that professional commitment was based on factors such as organisational commitment, professional-

organisational conflict, their satisfaction with their rewards, moderated by their organisational level. Their study suggested that professional commitment was compatible with organisational commitment, but found variations dependent on organisational level and income. Clearly these factors need to be considered in the present study, which has the added advantage of incorporating a measure of career success (which in itself includes promotions/organisational level and income).

Earlier work by Aranya and Jacobson (1975), investigating occupational commitment of systems analysts in Israel, had observed that where an occupation is part bureaucratic and part professional (they cited the example of personnel managers) a dual commitment to both occupation and organisation should be expected. The knowledge base of the profession is derived both from organisational processes and extra-organisational codes and values. That professional workers have different commitments and different referents has long been recognised and there was a body of earlier (1980's) work that did just that. For example Zahra (1984:26), suggested that:
' - better educated employees tend to be less committed to the organisation, which is explained by their strong commitment to their professions and/or availability of work opportunities elsewhere.'

Morrow and Wirth (1989: 40 et seq.) set out to identify professional commitment as a form of work commitment, and attempted to consolidate the notions of professionalism by using Morrow and Goetz' (1988:93) definition as:
' - the extent to which one identifies with one's profession and accepts its values'

Their findings suggested that (page 52) professional commitment was a concept and a measure worthy of further study. They concluded that professional commitment was distinctive from organisational commitment and could not identify any meaningful distinction between professional commitment and job involvement. They also expressed concerns about the universal generalisability of their work to all professions, and suggested that it might be more appropriate to work towards a concept of generic career focus. This is useful to consider in the context of the millenial labour market where individuals are increasingly likely to experience major changes in career or professional focus during their working lives, and in the context of the present research where

learning is the key, through CPD, to employment sustainability, or employability.

Morrow and Goetz's (1988:92 et seq.) research took what they described as a 'multidimensional' approach where they looked at professional commitment and how it overlapped with other forms of commitment, based on Hall's (1968) conceptualisation of professionalism, which included: professional identification, ethics, collegial maintenance of standards, 'professional commitment' and autonomy. Their research supported the identification of professional commitment as a form of work commitment, but with a number of caveats. First, the study did not account for a wide range of 'professional' behaviours, such as participation in continuing education (included in the present study as Continuing Professional Development). Secondly, they focused on a single professional group, accountants. Third, the generalisability of their work could, they suggested, be limited by the fact that while workers by definition have a job, they do not all have a career. Thus they suggested that professionalism is not a concept that can be applied to all workers, and in that respect it resembled union commitment. Morrow and Goetz conceded that the concept of professionalism was an important area for future research, and identified that (p. 109): ' - there is a steady increase in the number of workers who regard themselves as professional and in the number of professional occupations - '.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990:171) hypothesised that professional and organisational commitment may be compatible and they hypothesised that there may be a link to developmental opportunities made available in one's organisation, but noted that at the time of their research the hypothesis had not been tested directly. The organisation's inputs into the CPD process will be explored in a later section of this literature review and are accounted for in the research instrument.

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993:538) suggested that although their three-component model of commitment (affective, normative, continuance) was developed in the context of organisational commitment, 'it is reasonable to expect that it might be applied to other domains'. Here, affective commitment means one's attitude towards an object, normative commitment the extent to which one accepts its goals and values, and continuance commitment the desire to maintain a relationship with the object.

They noted that the words occupation, profession and career had been used 'somewhat interchangeably'. They chose to use the term occupation rather than profession to reflect their belief that both (page 539) :

' - professionals and non-professionals can experience commitment in the work they do -'

Aranya et al's (1981) professional commitment scale did not break the commitment down into different forms of commitment. Subsequent studies in the organisational commitment field informed developments across the wider body of commitment research to allow more sophisticated analysis. For example, Tsui et al (1997) broke

---

Table 3: **Affective Commitment**

1. I am willing to put in effort beyond the norm for the success of the organisation
2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great place to work for
3. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar
4. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation
5. This organisation inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance
6. I am extremely glad to have chosen this organisation to work for over other organisations
7. I would accept almost any type of job to keep working for this organisation
8. I really care about the fate of this organisation
9. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work

From: Tsui A., Pearce J.L., Porter L.W., and Tripoli A.M., (1997), 'Alternative approaches to the employee-organisation relationship: does investment in employees pay off?, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 40, No. 5, pp 1089-1121.

---

down the work relationship into core task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, continuance, attendance, affective commitment, perceived fairness, and

mutual trust. This represents an evolution from the very many studies of the various forms of commitment through the last three decades of the 20th century, which were subsequently summarised well by Mowday 1998, one of the 'classic' writers in the field.

Tsui et al's work is of particular interest in the present context as their items on *affective commitment* have utility as items for affective (ie. attitudinal) professional commitment if one subsititutes the word 'profession' for 'organisation' as was customary in many of the earlier studies. Their affective commitment scale is reproduced here as table 3. Generally their research is strongly located on the 'organisational' domain but does emphasise the significance of 'investment' in the employee in the form of development. Desrochers and Dahir (2000:563 et seq.) attempted to link organisational and professional commitment, and organisational and professional ambition. Although their measures had potential limitations (eg. of shared measurement variance), the concept of ambition could be a useful extension to the present study at a later date, representing a different perspective to that presented by constructs such as employability, or career success.

Gruen et al (2000:34 et seq.) examined the commitment of association members to their professional bodies, defined as:
' - the degree of the member's psychological attachment to the association.'
In fact the study is more to do with the association's relationship with the membership. The study focused on the US National Association of Life Underwriters and the relationship (in US terminology) of the '150 regional chapters' to the association's members. The study measured affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in relation to the association's relationship marketing activities, and to the retention of members, but only a weak link was found. The research is relevant in the present context in that it considered a multidimensional approach to the commitment relationship to the professional organisation, how the professional organisation marketed itself to the members, and that it used a multi variate and multi factorial approach. They concluded (page 47) that professional organisations should:
' - disseminate organisational knowledge to the members to move them closer

intellectually and emotionally to the organisation.'

Hoff (2000:1433 et seq.) investigated the professional commitment of US 'physician executives', and especially the relationships between their professional commitment, their self perceptions of autonomy and self -regulation, and their roles as managers within the health system. His measure of professional commitment, although somewhat selective, used affective items similar to those found in Tsui et al 1997 (on organisational commitment). He found that professional commitment showed little variation over career stages or age range; that those professionals who believed in the right of the profession to police itself showed greater professional commitment. He also found that that the respondent's connectedness to the practice of the profession (in this case medicine) was also important for professional commitment. These findings are relevant in the context of the present study in respect of relating these findings on the age distribution to the present study. For example, CIPD members who are senior Human Resource managers may have lost touch with day to day practice, which may affect their professional commitment. In addition, the extent to which the bureaucratic vs. independent professional debate affects Human Resources professionals may in turn affect their professional commitment.

To summarise the rationale for the inclusion of professional commitment in this study, noting the professional commitment is distinct from organisational commitment (Morrow and Wirth 1989), it was considered appropriate in the early 21st century context to focus on professional commitment as emphasising the beyond-organisation aspects of the professional role. Recognising the complex and multi-dimensional nature of commitment as a construct (Morrow and Goetz 1988), it was identified that a focus on the affective aspects (eg. Tsui et al. 1997) would be consistent with the affective nature of the other measures employed. Tsui et al. also noted the importance of 'investment', making a connection to Continuing Professional Development or CPD, supported by the suggestion by Blau 1985 of the importance of what he called development orientation. A hypothesised relationship between professional commitment and the perceived value of CPD is discussed later in the study. Further research questions in relation to professional commitment could include first

identifying the level of PC in the sample, and examining differences in PC in relation to individual attributes.

2.2.5 Professional workers in the 21st Century: who they are and what they do.

What, then does the future hold for professional workers? Reviewing the preceding section, it seems logical to conclude that it depends on what type of professional worker one is considering. One might expect that many traditional professions operating in bureaucratic organisations may be under threat, not just from delayering (eg. middle-level personnel or finance professionals) but also from changes to their role and perceived levels of expertise (medical professionals in the N.H.S., educational professionals in Universities). Ackroyd (1996:617) debated whether sufficient numbers of the new expert workers would gain control of their employing organisations, or whether they would revert to traditional methods of professional organisation to 'perpetuate themselves and extend their influence'. Quoting historical precedent, he suggests that this will be the case - the survival and prosperity of professionals was not in doubt, simply the means by which they do so. This may be questionable. Given the scale of organisational and occupational change in the last twenty years of the twentieth century, it is not impossible that even more fundamental changes may apply in the first twenty years of the twenty first century, and we do not yet now what will develop.

Arthur and Rousseau (1996:38) provided a 'career lexicon for the 21st century' which included the following advice:
'Careers in today's world are what you make them - Organise your employment around your professional and social networks, and use those networks as your link to the larger environment. Don't wait for formal training, but make sure the group of colleagues and collaborators you surround yourself with sustain new learning for you, and try to reciprocate for them. Transition to new ways is constant. Look after your self, but don't be afraid to trust and to work to build trust around you.'

Arthur and Rousseau also emphasised building reputations and relationships with others. Harrington and Shepard (1996:48) took the process a stage further in suggesting that professionals (in this case, U.S. internal auditors) should regard themselves as

'independent contractors' which included establishing an independent career plan, a (self) marketing plan, and a self-development plan. This emphasis was suggested as demonstrating the means for organisational professionals to acquire the behaviours of independent professionals. The present emphasis on continuing professional development or CPD may thus also serve to promote this independence. However, there may be transactional elements to the contractual position (Watkins et al. 1992:44), described in an extreme form by Mirvis and Hall (1994:375) where:
' - otherwise highly paid professionals and managers, deemed specialists, may work on a fee-for-service basis and be treated as more or less hired hands'.

This appears contradictory - the classical fee for service professional relationship operated this way with client relationships, and they would never be regarded as 'hired hands'. We are conditioned, as organisation men (and women) to believe that transactional contracts are somehow bad or undesirable. Mirvis and Hall suggest that in this situation, the emphasis is on professionals' value to the organisation: the emphasis is on them to keep their skills up to date and therefore in demand. The scenario is described as a virtuous cycle where people add value to themselves and are seen as adding value by their employer. The locus of responsibility is on them to perpetuate their own development, and therefore their employability. Kanter (1994:3) suggested that within an organisational context employability security should be emphasised, where employee skills are increased, or they are offered challenge or the chance to build a reputation. Organisations could assist this process by facilitating training and education.

Knowledge and skill requirements for professional workers are no longer restricted to narrow vocational areas. Leveson (1996:36) described the need for professionals to become multi-skilled, based around a set of core professional competencies but with a better understanding of other disciplines, for example within the professions associated with the construction industry: architecture, surveying, and civil engineering. Thus the place of professionals in the employment relationship, whatever form it may take, is underpinned by learning, and where professionals and knowledge workers provide a positive model for work relationships in the future. Such individuals are not locked in to a dependency relationship with an employer. They have asserted their own worth and now seek to develop it. The onus is on individuals to keep themselves up to date and to

secure their employability, with the inference that individuals who do this will enjoy greater success and sustainability of employment.

There is a counter-argument. Ekinsmyth (1999:355) suggested that: 'individuals who are more free of structure have more freedom to fail' - as well as the freedom to succeed. Ekinsmyth suggested that in a risk society, the more fortunate will be able to 'write their own biographies' (page 356.), but the less fortunate will continue to 'have their biographies written for them' - in other words to be less empowered rather than more. Thus while a more flexible future may bode well for some, the risks of career failure are higher outside the certainty of organisation structures, and for those with no skills or few skills the future looks bleak indeed.

Having considered a selection of the literature, is it possible to produce a working definition of a professional in the contemporary context, and for the purposes of this study? The term risks becoming all-embracing (Morrow and Goetz 1988, Greenwood and Lachman 1996), and real-world developments seem to support this view. Clearly, being a professional has a good deal to do with whether one sees ones-self as a professional, but the likelihood of being externally recognised as a professional depends on the presence of a number of attributes, including:

- *identification of ones-self and by others as a professional* (Kerr and Von Glinow 1977, Morrow and Goetz 1988, Mirvis and Hall 1994)
- the presence of external referents eg. loyalty to professional organisation (Elliot 1972, Watkins 1992, Ackroyd 1996)
- an emphasis on professional networking as a way of promoting relationships which may also be the basis for business or client relationships(Arthur and Rousseau 1996:38)
- engagement with updating, learning, and professional development, generally under the heading of CPD (Arthur and Rousseau 1996:38, Hall 1996:9, Mirvis and Hall 1996:375 - 'added value') including the ability to learn from experience
- professional values, acquired through socialisation and training (Hall 1968) which may manifest themselves as professional codes of practice
- the ability to exercise professional discretion at work (Hall 1968, Drucker 1968,

Morrow and Goetz 1988)

- the ability to exercise occupational closure (Leveson 1996, Ackroyd 1996, Reed 1996)
- an emphasis on a trust relationship in the workplace, including the belief that one's judgement is trusted without question (Watkins et al. 1992, Arthur and Rousseau 1996)

However it may be wise to follow Elliot (1972) and Kerr and Von Glinow (1977:340 et seq.) in regarding professions as being on a series of continua against each of these items. It is suggested however that to a greater or lesser extent all of these things are essential components of the professional's psychological contract - either with their profession, or their organisation. What remains an under-researched area is the key role of learning and development, in the context of professional work manifesting itself as continuing professional development, how this impacts on professional workers professional commitment, why they engage in it, and what effect it has, for example on their perceptions of success or employability.

2.2.6 The Role of Professional Organisations.

This final section of the literature review on professionals considers the role of the professional associations and the relationship with their members. Changes to roles and perceptions of professional workers, compounded by organisational and social change, has brought substantial changes for professional organisations, of which there are well over 400 in the U.K. with over 75,000 members (Watkins et al. 1992:100). This section examines their role in the context of the relationship to the professional member, although CPD processes and empirical studies are actually the subject of a separate section of the literature review and are not analysed in detail here.

As new professional organisations such as for example the Institute of Learning and Teaching (established 2000) come on the scene, it may be prudent to consider what we mean by such a body, and what is or is not included given that membership of a professional association is one of the criteria by which membership of the sample is defined. Watkins (1999:64) identified four basic criteria or common key features as

being:

- entry barriers, based on education or experience to qualify as members
- a register of members
- a code of conduct for members regarding their professional work
- systems to maintain quality and standards within the profession.

It can be seen in the context of the present study that the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development satisfies these criteria.

The current research agenda in relation to professional bodies is described by Greenwood and Lachman (1996: 563) and Ackroyd (1996:599). Traditionally professional bodies in the U.K. were regarded as having:

' - a fairly stuffy image, and were regarded as bureaucratic, inward looking and reactive to the changing needs of their members and changing external circumstances.' (Ackroyd 1996:599)

Similarly, Leveson (1996:38) described the 'tight boundaries' and 'professional closed shops' maintained by professional bodies in the U.K.

In response to the challenges, Watkins reported that many had now become 'market-led with clear business strategies'. These include promoting continuing professional development, with some adopting random inspection (Watkins et al.1992:101) with the potential for consequential disciplinary action. One of the challenges is reported by Watkins as keeping pace with the 'rapid growth of knowledge and specialisation of professionals after initial qualification.' Similarly Watkins reported (page 55) a growing 'competence gap' in respect of the increasing divergence between organisational knowledge and skill requirements after the end of professional workers formal education. Watkins et al. reported (page 57) that while professional workers sometimes found updating onerous, they also saw it as part of their professional responsibility, and was in many cases mandatory as part of their professional role, with examples quoted from from surveying, accountancy and medicine. London (1996:74) reported that American professional associations had 'taken an active role in retraining and creating job opportunities for unemployed members.'

The role of professional organisations in promoting Continuing Professional Development or CPD is discussed more fully in chapter 3.

2.2.9: Conclusion

As a conclusion to this section of the literature review, a brief reflection on the preceding chapter will reinforce the rationale for the study overall. The literature review so far has aimed to emphasise the changed nature of the work context and work relationships for professionals as well as other workers (Doherty 1996, Guest 1996, Herriot and Stickland 1996, Rajan and Van Eupen 1998), the need for strategies to cope with new career forms (Bird 1994, Mirvis and Hall 1994, Arthur and Rousseau 1996, Bolles 1996), and the suggestion that individuals who are relatively independent of organisational constraints may be best placed to cope with or succeed in the boundaryless career context (Jackson 1996, King 2000), even if they work in a managed context. It is suggested that professional workers are well placed in this respect (Ackroyd 1996). One of the key ways in which this can be achieved is through an emphasis on learning and development (Defillippi and Arthur 1994, Herriot and Pemberton 1995), or in the context of professionals, on continuing professional development. This is considered in more detail in the next chapter. The literature review has also considered definitional factors relating to professionals and the attributes they are likely to possess (Elliot 1972, Kerr 1977, Rajan 1990, Wilson 1995, Reed 1996 and the relationship of professionals to organisations if that is their employment context. The nature of professional commitment has been considered and especially how it can be measured (Aranya et al. 1981, Blau 1985, Morrow and Wirth 1989, Hoff 2000); recognising the tensions that can occur between professionals and their organisations (Wallace 1995), and professionals as managers (Herriot and Pemberton 1996).

At this point the logic of the study variables in this research becomes clear. First, professional commitment is emphasised rather than organisational commitment, as representing the beyond-organisation focus that one might reasonably expect professional workers to have, and as being more realistic in the post-downsizing era. As will be demonstrated in chapter 3, continuing professional development as a learning strategy is widely promoted by the professional associations, and attitudes to the value of CPD were measured in the field survey. The survey also sought to establish exactly what CPD was undertaken. Third, in the turbulent employment context that has been

described, staying 'ahead of the game' can be a challenge, and the ability to do this - to keep the job one has or to get the job one aspires to - is operationalised as 'employability', in itself a concept that has often been alluded to but rarely researched. Fourth, while much of the literature in the present employment context emphasises survival or coping, it was felt that a more positive approach would be to emphasise career success. This would be as a measure of how well the respondent's felt they had done up to that point, hence the inclusion of subjective career success as a study variable.

Although these are discussed in more detail in chapter 4, research issues suggested by this section of the literature review included the hypothesised relationship between high levels of professional commitment and a high value accorded to CPD, the relationships between attributes of the sample and their professional commitment, and more general concerns in respect of how well the Human Resources profession in the UK appear to be coping with contemporary work and career patterns at the start of the 21st century. The next chapter considers the variables that are the focus of the present study.

CHAPTER 3: CPD, EMPLOYABILITY AND CAREER SUCCESS.

3.1 Introduction

This chapter represents a literature review in relation to three of the study variables being considered in the present research, professional commitment having already been addressed in the previous chapter. It is divided into three sections, covering continuing professional development (CPD), employability, and career success respectively.

3.2. Continuing Professional Development

3.2.1 CPD: Introduction and definitions

Throughout the last decade, there has been an increasing tendency for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) to be used as an umbrella term for professional learning and development activities, and for this to be linked to either the licence to practice or professional accreditation. However while the term CPD. is widely used, there has been little empirical investigation of what kinds of CPD professionals engage in and why, and its impact on individual's behaviour at and beyond work. Professional workers' attitudes to CPD are at the core of the present study. This literature review set out to examine a number of questions, with the intention of identifying what is the state of existing research on CPD, and how this could inform the present study.

- What influences the intensity and effort with which individuals engage in CPD activity and can we measure this?
- What is the value placed on CPD by the sample?
- What CPD do professionals undertake and what are their preferred learning strategies?
- What is the relationship between engagement with CPD, professional commitment, subjective career success and self-perceived individual employability?

As an initial overview of the field, it was found that there was a lot of descriptive or advisory material in publication (see chapter 2), but little empirical research on the behavioural or attitudinal causes or consequences of CPD, or organisational factors and

the links to CPD. Indeed Sadler-Smith and Badger (2000:74) described the CPD research agenda as 'impoverished'.

3.2.2 What is CPD?

The remainder of this section will consider definitions and models of CPD, examples of CPD good practice as promoted by professional associations, and progress in this study towards a measure of engagement with CPD activity. Most professional development schemes will offer their own definition of CPD: the Professional Associations Research Network (Parn 2001a:2) quote an (unreferenced) definition attributed only to the Construction Industry Training Council (1986) as:
'The systematic maintenance, improvement & broadening of knowledge & skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for execution of professional and technical duties throughout the individual's working life.'
PARN (2001a:2) found that 40% of professional associations who responded to their latest survey used this definition of CPD.

Kennie and Enemark (1999:156) and Guest (1999:23) both offered two definitions (attributed to the 'Institute of Continuing Professional Development' but otherwise unreferenced) including:
'CPD is - the process by which a professional person maintains the quality and relevance of professional services throughout his/her working life.'

Kennie and Enemark however pointed out that CPD must also recognise the continuous nature of professional learning. They debated effective (focused) versus ineffective (fragmented) approaches, and made connections to organisational training strategies and lifelong learning. Gosling (2000:11), writing about the Institute of Learning and Teaching, suggests that 'CPD serves two main purposes - First to ensure that minimum professional standards are being met, and, secondly, to encourage formative and developmental activities that will enhance professional practice.'

Senior (2002:2) proposed three models of CPD. The first of these he called the *inputs* model, which, driven by the need for professionals to keep up to date, focused on the recording of learning activities and tended to emphasise formal courses at the expense

of informal on the job learning. The second model Senior referred to as the *learning* model, focused on the cycle of planning and reviewing learning. However, as Senior observed (page 3):

'Knowing that my doctor is a good learner may be interesting, but does not provide me, as a patient, with much confidence.'

Senior based his third approach on competence, with the focus not so much on the needs of the professional as on the needs of their client, and where there is an emphasis on assessment to provide evidence of this competence. Senior suggested that while most professions had moved from the first model to the second, only by moving to the third, competence based model, would CPD be seen to be 'grown up' (page 3).

3.2.3 Why is CPD important?

We have noted in chapter 2 that professional workers, despite their apparent privileges and social status are not immune to obsolescence (Pazy 1990, Watkins 1992), nor to being adversely affected by change. Rusaw (1995.222) described the 'diminishing half-life of technical knowledge', while London (1996:69) observed that:

'The more a profession is affected by changing conditions - the more continuous learning is needed to avoid displacement and the more frequently different employment opportunities arise'.

Similarly Arthur and Rousseau's (1996) 'career lexicon for the 21st century' included advice on proactively maximising development and learning opportunities. Herriot and Pemberton (1996) suggested the 'development contract', underpinned by learning, as something positive that organisations could offer employees even if they could not offer them the security of lifetime employment. The need for updating and CPD was well recognised especially by the U.K.'s professional associations, such as the CIPD (at the time, the IPD) who defined it in their 1993 (IPD:1) Code of Practice as:

' - systematic, ongoing, self directed learning - '

Why therefore should the topic of CPD be worthy of attention? Is it not sufficient that we simply accept that learning is A Good Thing, without understanding what drives the individual toward the significant investment of time and effort involved? Within the professional's field of literature, learning and development are somewhat

underrepresented. There are several studies of the *motivation* of professional or knowledge workers (eg. Tampoe 1993, Causer and Jones 1996), the *commitment* of professional workers (eg.Aranya, Kushnir and Valency 1986, Morrow and Wirth 1989, Wallace 1995), models and studies of (mostly professional) *psychological contracts and managerial careers* (eg. Rousseau 1995, Kessler and Undy 1996, Sparrow 1996, Guest 1997); but all of these more or less ignore learning and development as either a cause or a consequence of whatever they are studying. It is not at all clear why this should be the case, unless it is simply a peripheral factor (be that a cause/input or an outcome/product), in which case one would imagine that at least some account had to have been made of it.

Learning and development have, albeit occasionally, received a mention. Cavanagh and Noe (1999:325) included 'participation in development activity' as an outcome in their study of 'antecedents and outcomes of the new psychological contract'. Similarly Nabi (1998:56) proposed that:
'There is a suggestion that skill development enhances one's sense of competence and perceived control over one's career and should therefore influence feelings of career success and satisfaction.'

Nabi suggested that the empirical research to support this link is 'very limited', but what research does exist generally but not always suggests a positive link to subjective measures of career success. As an overall introduction to the descriptive CPD literature (as opposed to empirical research), Kennie and Enemark (1999:155) linked the 'growing importance of CPD' to the changing business environment, and changing career patterns. They identified some of the formal and informal modes of learning, and suggested some of the reasons why individuals should engage in CPD. These included (page 158) professional competence, as a protection against litigious clients, and to support business competitiveness. Kennie and Enemark suggested that successful CPD would integrate individual and organisational needs, and look to outputs rather than inputs as a critical measure of success.

CPD remains an under-researched element of the professional's frame of reference at work. Its inclusion here is justified because, while on the one hand professional organisations continue to exhort their members to engage in CPD, on the other the research on what sort of CPD their members engage in and why is limited. There has

been little empirical work on benefits that members perceive from 'doing' CPD. This literature review examines individual's motivation and readiness to learn,considers the practices promoted by UK professional organisations with a view to identifying good practice, and considers the limited research evidence relating to measures of CPD.

3.2.4 The relationship of CPD to readiness to learn

For the sake of brevity a literature review on the psychological theories of learning and typologies of learning styles is omitted, except to observe that most CPD processes are based on a reflective framework involving individual introspective processes where the key learning points from activities undertaken are identified. These processes typically owe much to Kolb's (1984:168) cycle of learning; and that a future extension of the study may be to link CPD and learning styles, which Kolb did (page 168 et seq) albeit in the context of engineering as a profession. Sadler-Smith et al. (2000:244) identified a 'proliferation' of models of learning styles, and the addition of a further variable, with a further set of up to 40 research questions had Honey and Mumford's (1986, 1992) typology been used, would have made the research instrument excessively long and the overall relationships excessively complex.

Critten (1999:2) suggested that the reflective process takes individuals to a stage beyond vocational competence to being ' synonymous with professional development'. PARN (2001b:4) emphasised the importance of reflective learning and the importance of linking the reflection to performance goals. However, as Maguire and Fuller (1997:180) suggest (quoting Knowles 1970, Jarvis 1987, Brookfield 1987): 'andragogy' - the assumption that adults are ready to learn and are self-directed learners - is relevant here, and that account should be made of socio-economic, situational and dispositional (ie self-related) factors - as influencing this readiness to learn. Their list of influencing variables includes age, income, gender, prior educational experience, time available, and the cost of engagement. This means that it cannot be assumed that all individuals have an equal predisposition to learning, or even the ability to engage with it, and that this readiness is complex and multi-faceted. Maguire and Fuller suggested that managers may have a higher predisposition for learning than 'lower' socio-economic groups , and this may require further investigation beyond the scope of the present enquiry. Maguire and Fuller also

pointed to: ' - a lack of studies of lifetime learning experiences' (page 177) - which is an interesting observation given the prevalence of the rhetoric about lifelong learning. Nonetheless their concern is recognised elsewhere: as Bryans et al. (1998:139) noted: 'Many organisations choose to work on the assumption that people are instinctively competent learners. They assume everyone has the meta-cognitive skills to be able to reflect upon their ways of acquiring current knowledge and applying it to their practice.' In the present study, an attempt was made to account for andragogy as a factor, but the scale produced had a very poor internal reliability coefficent so these results were excluded from the final analysis. This may well be an area for further development at a later date.

Tamkin and Hillage (1997:1 et seq.) suggested that participation in learning is 'heavily influenced by demographic factors'. Those positively disposed towards learning were likely to have undertaken more learning in the past, be younger, be full time and be well paid. Non-learners in their study (which was not just of professional workers) were likely to be older, to have lower qualification levels, but also to have attitudinal barriers to contend with. They also suggested (page 3) that the benefits of learning were likely to be influenced by 'life cycle stages and the remaining period of return'. The influence on age in relation to learning orientation will be revisited later in the study.

Hoeksma et al. (1997:307 et seq.) considered the role of deep and surface learning in their examination of the relationship between learning strategy and organisational structure in predicting career success. While a consideration of career success fits elsewhere in this literature review, they found that engagement with deep learning enhanced a manager's chances of career success providing they worked in organisations with low levels of specialisation, and for general managers with less well defined task responsibilities. They also warned against the danger of over-specialised surface learning, as this leads to a tendency to get bogged down in irrelevant minor detail about organisationally located tasks. Hoeksma and his colleagues highlighted the importance for managers of learning how to optimise their learning experiences. The researchers also highlighted the importance of working and networking outside the organisation, and suggested that this would give professionals who did this, information about the marketability of their competencies, enabling them to avoid over-specialisation and the development (page 324) of a more boundaryless career. They support the view of Mirvis

and Hall (1994), that professional rather than organisational identification may be the better long term bet, as this may offer a more sustainable connection.

Bond (1994:17 et seq.) considered two models of reflective learning for professionals linked to CPD through the use of problem-based scenarios. He suggested that motivation to engage in CPD and learning would be enhanced because the problem based approach made the activity more relevant to the individual and their needs (page 19). Allen et al (1999:1113 et seq.) suggested that motivation to learn is related to prior learning, completion of training programmes, and perceived training transfer, and suggested that individuals with a high motivation to learn were less likely to have feelings of career or hierarchical plateauing. Such individuals were also likely to be more involved in their jobs, possess greater self-insight and be more aware of career opportunities. However Allen et al. noted with caution (page 1116) that participation in learning activities cannot be taken as an indicator of interest in doing so, as the activities 'may be mandatory or cover content already mastered'. Steele (2001:312) suggested that 'transformative learning' involving 'intellectual excitement' and 'professional discourse' would be the type of CPD that would be stimulating enough to allow midwives to cope with the changing needs of the profession. All of these learning strategies helped to inform the list of different ways of undertaking CPD included in the research instrument. As a summary comment, it is not just inputs (eg. courses attended, hours of training) or outputs (eg. skills acquired) that are important. It is also the individuals' intention to learn and the ability to do so, which may be linked to learning preferences and cognitive style (Sadler-Smith et al. 2000:239).

3.2.5 The role of professional associations and the promotion of CPD policy

Having identified the need for professional updating, how do professional associations seek to promote the notion of CPD to their members? Rusaw (1995:215 et seq.) suggested that professional associations were influential in informal as well as formal processes of learning, in the latter case through activities such as mentorships, networks and committee participation. Formal development was identified as including technical training, education and certification. Rusaw emphasised the role of professional

associations in bringing together practitioners from a range of organisations, an emphasis on networking and informal learning that has substantial utility for the present study. The professional networks were seen as presenting a 'bigger picture of reality' (p.220), extending the individuals perceptions beyond that influenced by organisational socialisation. In addition, as a consequence of the diminishing half-life of technical knowledge, professional associations have a role in defining what the current state of (codified) knowledge is in relation to a professional area.

The Professional Associations Research Network (PARN 2000:1 et seq.) surveyed 436 associations to ascertain whether they had undertaken surveys on their requirements on a range of issues. The survey appeared to be part of an ongoing project on the state of CPD across the professional associations. The professional associations responding had surveyed a range of issues, including members' compliance with CPD requirements, the types of CPD undertaken, member's attitudes to CPD, whether they found out what CPD members wanted, whether they surveyed employer involvement, and what benefits their members perceived from CPD. Of the 269 respondents, the majority had voluntary CPD schemes. Few had surveyed their members' interests in CPD however, citing resourcing issues as limiting factors. PARN noted that (page 5):

'From many other professional associations there was a response of surprise or confusion at the idea that they might have felt it necessary to find out their member's views, or a complete lack of interest in the idea.'

In a later survey on CPD reported by the Professional Associations Research Network (PARN 2001b:1 et seq.), key issues for the professional associations participating were suggested to include:

- participation by senior practitioners
- what is perceived to constitute CPD?
- who pays: the individual or the employer?
- time: are allowances given by employers, and what kinds of CPD activities are given in working time?
- how CPD fits in with employers staff development or appraisal schemes?

Connections, and sometimes tensions, between individual CPD and employer-led development activity are discussed below.

PARN (2002b:1) reported the outcome of an internet discussion forum involving respondents from twenty-two professional associations on the way in which CPD fitted into their governance structures. Of these, four had a dedicated CPD committee, seventeen combined CPD with other responsibilities, and one had no committee for CPD. PARN concluded (page 2) that where associations combined responsibility for CPD with professional learning and education allowed a potentially 'seamless transition between the two'. Where responsibility lay with committees with an oversight of professional affairs, this was seen to underline that 'professionals are obliged, whatever the actual CPD policy might state, to maintain knowledge and competence'.

Internationally, CPD models replicate to a large extent although this may well be influenced by the business culture of the country. For example, SAICE (the South African Institute for Civil Engineering) published very prescriptive CPD guidelines (2002:31) which included definitions of CPD, listings of types of acceptable CPD activities, and how the engagement could be measured which was typically by 'input' such as hours spent.

There are many examples of claimed 'good practice' in CPD from practitioners, from workplaces and professional institutes. The following section is necessarily selective. At the time of writing practitioner and professional publications are characterised by large numbers of descriptive accounts from the various professional bodies promoting their particular brand of CPD. These include:

- linking workplace learning to accreditation, and even to rewards (Sandelands 1998)
- utilising new approaches to learning at work including mentoring, open learning and Computer Based Training (Rajan et al, 2000)
- taking a systematic approach based on diagnosis, action, reflection, evidence collection and synthesis - or practical application of what has been learned (West 2001)
- linking C.P.D. to personal development plans (eg. Tamkin et al. 1995, Rajan et al. 2000)
- accounting for prior learning not just the 'here and now' when preparing portfolios (Romaniuk and Snart 2000)

- *learning that goes beyond the 'codified knowledge' to 'reflection in action in the company of other professionals'.* (Critten 1999)

Further pursuit of this descriptive literature was felt to be beyond the scope of the present enquiry although some sort of meta-analysis may well be an avenue for future research.

Such was the level of interest in CPD at the start of the 21st century that 'Training Journal' devoted a special issue to the topic (September 2001), whose distinctive contribution is a description of CPD practices from a range of professional bodies, including another look at the CIPD by Wlliams (2001:12) discussed elsewhere in this chapter, and Williams noted the importance of advancing the Institute's cause. This is also how Brooks (2001:15) described key principles of the Institute of Training and Occupational Learning's CPD approach in the same issue, where CPD is mandatory for the Institute's members although they have some considerable freedom on how they actually achieve this. Similarly, with respect to the Institute of IT Training, Moss (2001:16) noted how an individual's CPD records can be a 'continuous thread through a potentially varied career'.

In the same issue, but moving into the domain of more familiar professional bodies, Blyth (2000:53) discussed the Royal Institute of British Architects (and their members) attitudes to CPD, and suggested the need to 'tread a middle path' between a 'policing scheme' and one that was seen as 'woolly' by members. Nonetheless RIBA members are obliged to do 35 hours (or '100 units') CPD per year, but Blyth suggested (page 53) that the Institute would do better to 'count the value, not the hours.' In the present study the 'hours' requirement recommended by the CIPD was given less emphasis than what members actually did and the value they perceived they got from CPD.

Tyler (2001:20 et seq.) also described the Royal institute of British Architects (RIBA) CPD requirements, noting the impact that professionals have as a stimulus for engagement:

' - any professional whose work impacts on the lives of others - should be required to do CPD. This is equally true in financial services, the health sector, law and construction. At a very basic level, this is for consumer protection. Beyond that, the professions recognise it as a way of helping to develop their member's careers. This also fits in with the government's views on lifelong learning as being essential to the financial well-being

of the nation'.
Tyler reported (page 22) that while almost all members had exceeded that Institute's 35-hour requirement, some members had been reluctant to submit records without being chased.

There is also substantial discussion in the same special issue (Flood 2001:26, Wilson 2001:33, Forrest 2001:33) of the role of online learning in CPD, including a review of the online facilities provided by some of the professional institutes themselves. Glover (2001:44 et seq.) reported the findings of a study by the 'Inter-Professional CPD Forum' that:
' - despite the fact that professionals made great use of the internet in general, its use for CPD was inhibited by badly designed and user-unfriendly websites, poor search facilities and slow download speeds.'
A quarter of respondents to the study blamed technological problems, and only 13% their own lack of IT skills.

Mayo (2001.36) raised questions about how 'we' (presumably meaning professional bodies) actually measure the impact of CPD undertaken on an individual's portfolio of capabilities, echoing Blyth's (2000.53) view of 'count the value not the hours'. At the same time Mayo noted with caution the emergence of what he called a 'new industry of quality assurers, assessors and testers all in the name of having standards'. This cautionary note is appropriate: while on the one hand it can be said that what gets measured gets done, on the other if the measures themselves are nonsensical or poorly founded then they are perceived to be less than useless. An example was the debate in UK universities in 2001-2002 about the UK Quality Assurance Agency's subject review. Mayo also emphasised the necessity for professionals to be able to benefit from a wide range of learning opportunities.

The health related professions in the UK have demonstrated substantial enthusiasm for CPD, leading to the formation (in 2002) of the Health Professions Council to co-ordinate CPD. Glover (2001:44) reported that to remain registered as professionals, practitioners will have to demonstrate 'active CPD'. Glover suggested that most health professions claim to have mandatory CPD, but that monitoring was 'scarce'. Davies and Ford (2001:334 et seq.) noted that especially in a health care environment, doctors themselves

may be resistant to the introduction of new systems and that this could also apply to CPD. The respondents to their survey (psychiatrists) preferred CPD to be part of a peer group process at a local level, although even this could experience problems such as intra-group trust. Interestingly the respondents cited 'loss of accreditation' (page 336) as a 'desirable penalty' for not engaging in CPD. As an example, PARN (2002b:1) describes the mandatory CPD scheme adopted by the UK's General Dental Council, where individuals have to undertake 250 hours of 'lifelong learning' over a five year period to maintain their certification, or face being struck off the GDC's register. As a contrast, Warr (2001: 12 and 2002:4 et seq.) described the Law Society's scheme as balancing carrot and stick approaches: based on the incentive to maintain competitiveness in a highly client-focused marketplace, with a strong emphasis on coaching and mentoring. Warr also emphasised the need for individuals to accept responsibility for their own development.

Viney and Muller (2002:115 et seq.) identified General Practice medicine as being a priority area for CPD development and cited non-principal (eg. locum) GP's as being a particularly vulnerable group due to their lack of attachment to a practice and distance from supportive colleague relationships. This is an interesting observation in the light of similar fieldwork findings (see chapter 9) in relation to HR professionals who work as independent consultants. White (2002:31 et seq.) identified the kinds of CPD activity undertaken by practitioners of oriental medicine and found that while attending formal courses and seminars was the activity on which the greatest amount of time was spent, reading and discussion with colleagues were also significant, as was mentor support. White concluded that their members needed clearer instructions as to how to undertake CPD, clarification of mentor roles, and the need for a CPD structure - bearing in mind that in this profession, many members are employed in small units such as medical centres or general practices.

As a concluding comment the proliferation of descriptive literature about CPD from the late 1990's onwards had not, at the time of writing, been matched by very much academic or empirical work to evaluate the significance of this growth of interest. Due to the scale and repetitive nature of the former, the author has only covered a small part of it, while the latter has proved to be extremely difficult to find. The next sub-section focuses on the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

3.2.6 CPD Policy in the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development

This section of the literature review examines policy matters in relation to the CIPD, whose members are the focus of this study. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development is the UK's national professional organisation for individuals who work in human resources, personnel and training. With over 116,000 members (www.CIPD.co.uk, February 2003), it provides policy advice at national level, with a geographical branch structure for local representation. It offers qualification based accreditation, although this is not a pre-requisite for entry to the profession, nor is a degree a pre-requisite for entry to the qualifications structure. It was one of the first professional organisations in the UK to actively promote CPD to its members, and has been very influential in the design and development of CPD systems and processes (CIPD 2002a, 2002b).

How do the CIPD fare when considered against criteria for identifying an occupational group as professionals? Based on the literature review, a number of defining attributes for the professional sample could be identified, although as was suggested earlier in the chapter, it is perhaps best to consider the following attributes as a series of continua rather than absolute requirements. First amongst these, and often applying irrespective of status perceptions of the occupation, is the identification of ones self and by others as a professional (Kerr and Von Glinow 1977, Morrow and Goetz 1988, Mirvis and Hall 1994). In the present context this self-perception of status was believed to be relevant to perceptions of career success or employability. The CIPD has grown considerably in status in the last two decades, acquiring a Royal Charter in 1994. Secondly, there should be a professional association for the occupation, which may be a source of loyalty or attachment on the part of the individual (Elliot 1972, Watkins 1992, Ackroyd 1996). This as believed to be important in the present context as professional commitment may influence an individual's predisposition to engage in CPD such as through the CIPD's promotion of the good practice. Third, there may be an emphasis on professional networking as a way of promoting client relationships beyond a work organisation. (Arthur and Rousseau 1996) This was believed to link to the individual's perceptions of CPD opportunities and also employment opportunities (and thus employability).

Of crucial importance in the present context is the engagement with professional learning from a variety of sources and professional updating (Rajan 1990, Arthur and Rousseau 1996, Hall 1996, Mirvis and Hall 1996), operationalised in chapter 4 as perceptions of the value of CPD (CPDV), as well as actual engagement with CPD (CPDE). This was seen as especially important in the context of the declining half-life of professional knowledge (Pazy 1992) and the need for professionals to keep up to date. Professional training, values and codes are another key attribute of professionals, the latter manifesting themselves in this context as the CIPD's own professional standards (CIPD 2002a, 2002b) and codes of practice on a range of topics.

It has also been suggested (Hall 1968, Drucker 1968, Morrow and Goetz 1988, Rajan 1990) that professionals should have the ability to exercise professional discretion at work. This aspect can be problematic for organisationally-located professionals who are expected to follow organisational rules and procedures as well as upholding professional standards, and who have organisational/managerial as well as professional responsibilities (Elliot 1972, Wallace 1995, Herriot and Pemberton 1996). Human Resources professionals are not immune from this conflict, on the one hand discharging managerialist agendas such as downsizing or performance management, while on the other promoting fairness, equality and work-life balance. A similarly problematic aspect of this profession is the professional attribute relating to the ability to exercise occupational closure (Leveson 1996, Ackroyd 1996, Reed 1996), meaning the ability to control entry through say qualification barriers, and thus maintain the scarcity of occupational skills. Professional training although not mandatory as a pre-entry job requirement for UK human resources professionals is something that will have applied to all of the sample by virtue of their membership status. Nonetheless anyone, given the opportunity, could have the title or role of 'Human Resources Director' in a UK organisation, and this is one of the factors that distinguishes this occupational group from, say those professions concerned with the soul, health and justice (Elliot 1972). What is notable is that the CIPD rather than restricting entry have actually sought to promote membership growth, and one can only speculate as to the possible long term consequences of this on the demand for their professional services.

Finally, an important attribute is an emphasis on professional trust, meaning that the professional's judgement is accepted without question (Watkins et al. 1992, Arthur and

Rousseau 1996). In this respect the Human Resources professional is supported in the UK by the codification of much of their practice as employment law, with 'good practice' being identified in a series of codes of practice promoted by the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS). Although scoring more strongly on some of the above attributes than others, the CIPD, the author's own professional organisation, emerged as the strongest contender for the focus of this study.

As one might expect for one of the early leaders in the CPD field in the UK, a number of practitioner publications have carried descriptive items in relation to the CIPD's CPD approaches. For example Crofts (2000:73) described a range of strategies that could be used to promote CPD at the CIPD local branch level, including the use of CD-Roms, mentorships and learning networks. Crofts also commented on the problems that members had of fitting CPD workshop type activities into the working week, even evenings, and cited examples of where weekend workshops were requested by members. Williams (2001:12 et seq.) however suggested that while CIPD members, especially those in a training role, may themselves be responsible for the development of others, they were not always able to give their own development the priority needed. Williams also provided a table (page 13) which offered the 'key principles underpinning the CIPD policy of CPD' as:

- a continuous process that applies throughout a professional's working life
- that individuals are responsible for controlling and managing their own development
- and should decide for themselves their learning needs and how to fulfil them
- that there should be learning targets which reflect the needs of employers and clients as well as the individual
- and that learning is most effective when it is integrated into work rather than an additional burden

Williams (2001:12), on the subject of CPD in the CIPD, noted that the members of this profession have a 'professional obligation to the Institute in demonstrating to the Privy Council, governing bodies and the outside world that CPD is something important and can be audited.'

While most professionals would have no problem with most of these points, the literature review has revealed some potential tensions in these areas, explored through

the qualitative research and which will be further explored through the quantitative research. For example, some individuals find it difficult to manage their own learning and have variable capacity for doing so. There may also be a tension between where the greatest benefit and thus the ownership of the CPD lies, with the individual or with employer - or indeed a client. The final point, that learning should be part of everyday organisational life, in theory may sit well with the concept of the learning organisation, but in practice may have more to do with rhetoric than fact.

The CIPD themselves offer a range of advice at both local and national level. Most branch websites will list a CPD advisor, and the main CIPD website (CIPD 2002a:1 et seq) sets out what is seen by the Institute as the individual rationale for CPD including CV enhancement, professional recognition, to 'showcase' one's achievements, accelerate career prospects, enhance salary and improve job satisfaction. The Institute in this source recommends a minimum of 35 hours per year dedicated to CPD activity and some researchers investigating CPD with CIPD members have referred to this (eg. Sadler Smith and Badger 2000:66 et seq.). In the present study the focus on hours as a simplistic output indicator was felt to be less helpful than an indication of what CPD members actually engaged in as a process descriptor, and how this related to other variables such as career success or employability.

(CIPD 2002b:1 et seq) offers further definitions of CPD, templates for recording CPD and examples of CPD activities from both inside and outside work, and an example of a typical CPD record. The policy document identifies (page one) four main sources of development as:

- learning through work-based activities
- attendance at courses, seminars and conferences
- personal activities outside of work
- self-directed and informal learning

Outside work activities that are suggested include school governorship, industrial tribunal membership, voluntary work, writing, lecturing or travelling. Self directed learning is suggested, to include reading a range of recommended publications, or attending branch meetings. The listings contained on the website were useful in

informing the listing of CPD strategies, which form the latter part of the quantitative research instrument.

On the subject of whether CPD should be voluntary or mandatory, Madden and Mitchell (1993) suggested two models, which they called the sanctions model and the benefits model. In the first, CPD is a mandatory requirement for members of a profession and non compliance results in sanctions. Jones and Fear (1994:51) suggested that this model was normally found in the older and well established professions: they suggest the Law Society, and the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales as possible examples. In support of mandatory CPD, they suggest (page 52) that as:
' - it is always those who need CPD most who are least likely to do it - it is argued [that] a voluntary policy would have no effect on those who most need to develop.'.

In the 'benefits' model, which Jones and Fear (1994:51) suggest is normally found in 'new or developing professional institutions', CPD is encouraged as a voluntary activity. Jones and Fear cite a range of examples including the (then) IPD, and the Chartered Institute of Marketing. They suggest in support of this model that imposing sanctions for non-compliance could be ineffective since membership of the professional institute or retention of a level of membership may not be a pre-requisite of the individual's employment in that field. This is true of Personnel and Human Resources, as opposed to say, Dentistry, General Practice Medicine or the Law (in the UK).

Further exhortations to engage in CPD and observations on the merits of CPD can be found in the Professional Association Research Network's online magazine 'Continuing Professional Development Spotlight'. These include observation on the importance of CPD in the context of changing career scenarios (Guest 2001:1), and motivations for undertaking CPD (Daniel 2001:3). PARN also contributed (PARN 2001b), a summary of the problems and solutions of planning and recording CPD. They reported a number of recorded outcomes (this expression being preferred in this context to findings as the respondent numbers were generally small). These included senior professionals resentment at being asked to record CPD (page 1), a lack of perceived benefits to membership upgrading (page 2), and a lack of diagnostic tools for planning and recording CPD. PARN also noted the need for professional association's CPD schemes to fit in with employer needs (page 3), and the importance of mentoring.

3.2.8 Empirical research relating to the CPD of CIPD Members

In addition to the policy-related material described above in the section on professional associations, there has been some research and publication activity in relation to CIPD members, what CPD they engage in and their attitudes to it. While some of this is what one might describe as academic output (eg. journal articles), some of it is research commissioned by the CIPD, to ascertain methods of and attitudes to CPD amongst their membership.

For example, a 1999 CIPD/Harris Research study into the CPD activity of its members described by Williams (1999:95) suggested that '74% of members had a development plan, 85% were aware of their (preferred) learning style, and 85% said CPD was undertaken to 'help in their job'. As for barriers to undertaking CPD, these were cited as work pressures (78%), domestic responsibilities (52%), and 'other priorities' (49%). Harris Research reported variable levels of enthusiasm for engagement with CPD, and highlighted the need for the Institute to actively promote CPD for members at whatever stage of their careers, as another member suggested elsewhere:

'- without people feeling the whole thing is simply about producing useless bits of paper.'

(Williams 1999:95)

Harris Research published another set of descriptive studies in 2000, again commissioned by the CIPD, these being the Lifelong Learning Survey (Harris 2000a), the 'CPD 2000 Survey: Corporate Members' (Harris 2000b), and the 'CPD 2000 Survey: Graduate Members' (Harris 2000c). The CIPD commissioned the first study (Harris 2000a) to 'examine the ways in which corporate members (MCIPD's) engage in lifelong learning and especially their CPD. The study is useful as comparative data in the context of the existing research, especially in respect of the demographic characteristics of the sample, job roles, and attitudes to CPD and development planning. This study did also consider preferred learning styles. The research characterised respondents by their attitudes to CPD and CPD recording, as follows:

- 10% were described as 'aspiring career changers' (page 8) whose CPD objectives included a personal commitment to development and establishing themselves in the profession. they also reported that domestic responsibilities could be a barrier to CPD, which one might expect given their younger age profile.

- 17% were described as 'assiduous record keepers' for whom CPD was part of a quest for membership upgrading. For many in this category, work pressures added to family responsibilities as a further barrier to CPD engagement
- a further 17% were described as 'development planners', (page 9) and who were the best of all the categories at record keeping, and who were the most likely to have undertaken an audit of their competencies. They were characterised by employment as trainers or similar.
- 23% of the respondents were described as 'job related learners' (page 9), who although they were less likely than average to keep records, their CPD was more job rather than self related. A higher than average number did not have a development plan or learning objectives, and most of the sample were male, more senior, and more likely to make use of spontaneous rather than planned learning.
- 11% of the respondents were referred to as 'CPD agnostics'. These were the least of all likely to keep records, set objectives. Many either thought the CIPD should not ask for CPD records, and it was found that (page 10),

' - this group more than any other could be yet to be convinced of the value of CPD.' Very few of the latter group had visited the CIPD website, yet many were directors and they were amongst the highest earners in the CIPD study. CPD was accorded a relatively lower priority in this group.

Finally, 22% of respondents were described as '*senior member sceptics*'. These were the most negative about producing records for the CIPD, and over half did not keep these. many did not have a development plan, yet were senior in their organisations, higher earners and more likely to be Fellows. The fact that more of this group than the other groups were self-employed or consultants in, for example, change management would explain why they also valued networking and found this important in their CPD.

Harris Research also reported suggestions for support provision from the Institute, which included: to provide competency career benchmarks, and advising on or providing learning opportunities (page 6). Attitudes to recording CPD were categorised as

- *traditional* including a strong sense of organisational commitment and traditional career values
- *cynically orientated* - where members did not see the point of CPD or found it

backward looking

- *anti-bureaucracy orientated*, characterised by one comment eg: 'you know what you have done, why write it down?' (page 7)
- finally, *privacy orientated* members were reluctant to reveal details to the CIPD, believing it to be none of their business.

Among the summary recommendations from this study (2000a) were the need for a segmented approach to CPD, in recognition of the distinct member groups within an apparently homogenous sample. This is a point that will be revisited later in the dissertation in the light of findings regarding the CPD needs of independent consultants and self-employed members. One example recommendation was what Harris Research called a 'gold card' approach whereby very senior people would be happy to pay for more tailored events relevant to their needs. The role of employers in CPD was also considered - at the time of the report the Institute did not liaise with employers directly, yet they were key to many of the CPD activities undertaken. These findings and recommendations are highly relevant to the present research and will be used for comparative purposes in the analysis chapter below.

The CIPD also commissioned TNS Harris to research the attitudes of Corporate, and Graduate (Grad.IPD) members to their CPD. Corporate members are normally those who have completed the full menu of the CIPD's professional qualifications plus a qualifying period of relevant experience for membership upgrading. The term 'corporate' would normally refer to Members (MCIPD), although the Harris study seems to have also included the higher category of Fellows (FCIPD), these being members who have senior experience as well. The report (Harris 2000b) focuses on members aged 40 and above and was based on a 33% response rate from a postal sample of 1000. Seventy five per cent of the respondents were MCIPD's, the balance FCIPD's, and the demographic characteristics of the sample will be compared with that of the existing study later in this dissertation. The purpose of the report appears to have been to make a longitudinal comparison to the data gathered in 1999. The report concluded that the sample aged forty plus were (page 4) 'fairly committed to their CPD'. The results for assessment, planning and the recording of development needs were not significantly different to 1999 and two thirds of the respondents had a development plan. Many had set targets for

themselves or had targets set by their employer in respect of development, but only 3% had used the CIPD's CPD software.

Almost all the respondents had taken part in professional work based activities that had contributed to their learning in the last twelve months. The second most common form of learning was 'self directed or informal learning' (page 2) followed by training courses and seminars and then personal activities outside of work. Again the data for engagement with different types of learning will be compared with the results of the present study in more detail later in this dissertation. The main areas to develop over the next few years included employee relations, employee law, HR policy, reward and remuneration, training and development and finally recruitment and selection, in descending order.

Most of the respondents were aware of the CIPD's policies on CPD but relatively few engaged with their branch. Many respondents suggested they would like more guidance on how to undertake and record their CPD, although most were positive about the support they had received. Significantly (page 4):

' - almost half (49%) of the corporate members surveyed did not like producing CPD records for the IPD and a third (31%) did not think the IPD should ask them to provide records of their CPD.'

In the context of the present research these findings are a potential source of concern, and will bear comparison with the present study later. Given the response rate (33% - better than that for the present study), one can only speculate as to whether those who did <u>not</u> respond had even less positive attitudes to, and a lower engagement with, their CPD.

The third CIPD study (Harris 2000c) focused on Graduate members, as members who have completed the qualification scheme but not the experiential requirements for corporate membership. Although the present study does not include graduate members the conclusions of the report are relevant. Probably because of the recency of their joining and qualification, these members were described (page 36) as being more positive in their attitudes toward the CIPD. They were more likely to keep records of their CPD (although many still did not like doing so), more likely to engage in CPD activity and more likely to have audited their own CPD needs. Clearly for many of these

members the incentive to engage was to provide evidence to support membership upgrading. Even so the institute was perceived to be very demanding in terms of CPD activity and record keeping by many (page 38). The report concluded that the best strategy for the Institute was to maximise support to new graduate members while they gain the experience required to upgrade membership, and to ensure that the evidence requirements were not so onerous as to put off potential applicants (page 38).

The three Harris Consultancy reports were clearly commissioned because the Institute was interested in maximising the utilisation of CPD and, in intention at least, was and is not insensitive to the views of its members. In the discussion of results from the present study it has been interesting to see how the Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire sample matched with this survey in their views. Glover (2001:44) describes the CIPD as having been a 'leading light in CPD for many years'. She describes how from July 2002 all members passing the professional qualification stages (Graduateship) then have a mandatory requirement to register their CPD including reflection on learning and a plan for the future.

After the field work had been undertaken in the present project, a number of studies were identified which focused on the CPD needs of CIPD small business members and self employed trainers and consultants. It is regrettable that these were not identified earlier as some key issues with the questionnaire, such as the potentially alienating nature of some of the questions to self-employed members could have been avoided. For example, Moran and Bateman (2000) reported the results of a survey of 2614 'IPD' members who identified themselves as either solo self employed or working in small enterprises, principally in the field of training. Many respondents felt (and this was echoed in the present study: see chapter six) that their needs in terms of marketing and business development were not well served by the CIPD, and that the Institute generally was not 'tuned in' to their needs. More recently, the CIPD 'Branch Supplement' (g. CIPD 2002c:4) has carried articles promoting the for a being developed to better serve the interests of small business members, apparently official recognition of an informal debate that had been going on for some time.

There are a small number of studies of the CPD of CIPD members at branch level. The Institute of Personnel and Development published its policy on Continuing

Professional Development in 1994. Jones and Fear (1994:52) reported that following this the Cardiff Branch surveyed the CPD requirements of its members. Jones and Fear (1994:49) describe how in 1991 the former IPM Council resolved that evidence of CPD be required for upgrading purposes, leading to the publication, in 1993, of the first IPD statement on CPD (IPD1993), which outlined the Institute's voluntary policy, and the philosophy that individual development needs be business-driven. Their Cardiff based survey was a comprehensive survey across all membership levels, with an overall 21% response rate, although 40% of the higher grades (for example, Members and Fellows as covered by the present study) responded. This over-represented the higher grades and Jones and Fear speculated (1994:53) that this may be because the newer members had not yet had time to think about their CPD. This suggestion is not supported by other related research, principally Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998), who found that it was the older and higher level members who placed too little emphasis on their CPD.

The questions and analysis used by Jones and Fear appear to be relatively unsophisticated, such as for example the finding that out of 201 respondents only three did not think CPD was important (page 53). Nonetheless the results have some utility in the present study in informing questionnaire design or for comparative purposes, noting that Jones and Fear's study was conducted at least eight years before the present one. Jones and Fear also reported (page 54) that 66% of respondents were currently involved in some form of CPD, 40% would have liked more information on CPD, and 64% were prepared to invest their own time in CPD. 80% of respondent's organisations did offer time to support CPD however, and 60% were prepared to offer financial assistance.

Members were also asked to indicate priority areas for their CPD: the penultimate item (95) on the present survey instrument (see appendix 1). Priorities in the 1993-4 study were strategic development (32%), employment law and European influences (29% - a high score which one might expect given the recency in 1994 of the Single Market), training and development (14%), the changing environment of HRM (11%), employee relations (10%) and computerised information systems (4%).

Jones and Fear's respondents indicate preferred development methods, rating on the job development (eg. acquired experience, networking) as the most popular (79%). Informal self directed development came next (68%) which included reading relevant literature,

although only 5% of these admitted attending branch meetings. 54% used 'structured formal training not leading to qualifications' (page 56), and 49% training leading to a qualification - the most frequent of these being the Institute's own. Jones and Fear concluded (page 56) that while some professional organisations 'such as the Law Society' required their members to attend formal courses, these members would prefer more informal and self directed methods.

Jones and Fear also surveyed the organisational connection, and found that (page 56) only 20% of their respondents said their organisation had a CPD policy, and only 10% that an HRM statement was integral to the business plan. This led them to the interesting conclusion that while the Institute required members to show how their CPD integrated with business needs it would be difficult to do so if HRM was not part of the Corporate Plan. Finally 85% of the respondents were not in favour of a compulsory CPD policy, but would be if it led to 'certificated outcomes' (page 58). There follows some discussion of a potential link to National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ's), although in the subsequent years it would appear the Institute elected not to develop this particular brand of CPD. Jones and Fear concluded (page 59) that CPD was not as business-driven as it might be, that most members preferred to engage with self-development methods. Overall despite the relatively unsophisticated nature of Jones and Fear's methodology their research has some utility in respect of the types of CPD undertaken and member's perceived priorities.

Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:66 et seq.) surveyed members of the U.K.'s Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development to investigate their attitudes to CPD, to explore the 'perception of their employer's attitudes to CPD', and to explore the relationship between these characteristics and individual factors (age, gender and job level), behavioural measures (job satisfaction and organisational commitment), and organisational characteristics (size and sector). The study, described (page 72) as 'exploratory', is highly relevant to the present research in that, the present research population are CIPD members, some of the measures produced can be adapted for this research, and the link to commitment (albeit OC in this case) has helped to inform the present research strategy. Sadler-Smith and Badger's survey questionnaire consisted of a number of sections the first of which explored attitudes to CPD, as follows:

- value of CPD - in relation to expected outcomes, in a changing work environment

- the support and recognition given to CPD by employers
- individual commitment to professional development
- the extent to which the respondents understood and operationalised the CIPD's requirements

Job satisfaction was measured using the 'Overall Job Satisfaction Scale' (Hoppock 1935). Organisational Commitment (OC) was measured using a 9-item short form of the OCQ.

Sadler-Smith and Badger concluded that the CIPD respondents valued CPD and saw it as an integral work based activity, irrespective of age, gender or job level (page 70), but that support from employers was variable. There were no significant differences between sector: public, private or SME's. No statistically significant correlation was observed between either OC, their measure of job sastisfaction, and the perceived value of CPD. This is noteworthy in the context of the present research in that OC was deliberately omitted as the focus is more on the professionals and their relationship with the profession. Sadler-Smith and Badger concluded that the role of the organisation was as a vehicle for the respondents' career and for some aspects of their development. Sadler-Smith and Badger considered (page 71) aspects of CPD targets and recording, raised as a concern in some of the later related literature (eg. Harris 2000c), this being one dimension of CPD the respondents were 'least well disposed to'. The record-keeping aspects are not part of the present research. This has been informed by that of Sadler-Smith and Badger, but with a greater focus on the factors related to CPD, much less emphasis on the organisational aspects, and the additional consideration of factors such as perceived employability and career success. Sadler-Smith and Badger suggested (page 74) that CPD may be a way to enhance mobility in the labour market (operationalised here as employability), and finally that the Institute may need to make some policy revisions if it was to achieve the level of engagement with CPD that it has aspired to. As a recent and rigorous empirical work the Sadler-Smith and Badger study has provided a key point of comparison which is discussed in more detail in chapters six and eight.

Sadler-Smith et al. (2000:239 et seq.) again surveyed CIPD members in Devon and Cornwall, this time to investigate the relationship between their CPD preferences, their cognitive style, and demographic characteristics. They identified a number of reasons why individuals would wish to undertake CPD, including (page 240) the need

to keep up to date ('maintenance'), to 'remain competent and valued organisation members' ('survival'), and to enhance labour market mobility. They hypothesised that cognitive style ('consistent individual differences in preferred ways of organising and processing information': page 241) may affect an individuals' choice of preferred learning activities. Sadler-Smith et al. describe a 'CPD preference inventory' which included items grouped by work-based methods, traditional methods (eg. training courses), and self-directed methods, which included using journals and books. The researchers found that their respondents preferred traditional, directed methods, with self-directed methods 'held in low esteem' (page 252). They found 'only limited support' for any relationship between learning preferences and cognitive style, with the suggestion that this may be mediated by gender. Sadler-Smith et al concluded (page 253), that HR practitioners had clear preferences for work-based CPD strategies, that style did not clearly predict preference, and that 'further research should address attitudes to CPD methods and the relationship between cognitive style and gender'. The present research goes some way towards addressing these questions, although this Sadler-Smith study was only uncovered after the fieldwork in the present research project had been undertaken.

Williams (2001:12), writing about the CIPD, (although a descriptive rather than analytical piece) noted that the members of this profession have a 'professional obligation to support the Institute in demonstrating to the Privy Council, governing bodies and the outside world that CPD is something important and that it can be audited.'

To conclude, it is fortunate that the few practical studies of CPD relate to the CIPD, of which the author is a long-standing member. These few contributions were most valuable in informing conceptual development and the design of the research instrument, and also highlighted some areas of concern and aspects for future development. Chapters 7 and 8 will reveal that there is substantial potential for comparison between the present study and those described above, although none of them integrate the range of variables that has been attempted here, and the present study also focuses more on the outside-organisation, 'professional' aspects.

3.2.8 Measuring CPD Engagement and Value

Blyth's (2000:17) request that professionals should 'count the value not the hours', begs the question of how can we measure engagement with CPD activity in the sense of what CPD do professionals actually do, and with what level of intensity and effort? Clearly the factors identified from within the process of CPD can be influential, which may arise from factors associated with the workplace (eg. if there is a link to appraisal and personal target setting), or with the professional institute (eg. if the membership feel patronised or fail to see the need to engage with the process properly: Taylor 1996:379 et seq.), or from within the individual, as in their cognitive style. These factors are summarised as table 4 below.

Table 4: What influences CPD engagement?

PERSONAL FACTORS	SITUATIONAL FACTORS
(from/within the individual)	(from workplace or professional institute)
andragogy	opportunity for reflection
age	peer support
income	workplace culture/history
gender	link to career development, appraisal
prior educational experience	structured/unstructured workplace CPD
time available	personal development plans
cost	institute requirements: mandatory?
preferred learning style	institute members culture/history
perceptions of use and exchange	how is achievement measured?
perceived need to engage	
cognitive style	

Developed from Taylor (1996) 'Professionalism and Monitoring CPD: Kafka Revisited', Planning Practice and Research, Vol. 11, No. 4pp 379 - 389

On the measurement of C.P.D., Watkins (1999.66) argued that 'in the past CPD has been measured according to input' - meaning hours spent or courses attended. He suggested that professional bodies are now moving towards an approach which measures 'outputs' or defined competence, and quoted the RICS scheme which considers the link to

perceived future job requirements. Informal CPD - the unexpected outcome - also gave measurement problems, but more realistically reflected learning through day to day experience, and Watkins quoted the CIOB and IEE as schemes which aim to recognise this without being heavy handed in the application of stringent requirements.

Tamkin and Hillage (1997) discussed the 'returns' that employers and individuals accrue from learning, including financial returns, making a clear link to perceived 'return on investment' on both parts. Tamkin and Hillage's list (page 56, table 6.1) included:

- For the employer: profits, workforce autonomy, creativity, adaptability to change, lower turnover and recruitment costs and an enhanced company image
- for the employee: greater job satisfaction, better job security and employability, and the ability to engage with a greater variety of work

It is suggested that it is more accurate to describe these as 'outcomes' rather than 'outputs' as these relate to behavioural attributes that have been changed through learning rather than static competencies that can really only be measured at a certain point in time.

3.2.9 Conclusions relating to CPD measurement and engagement

First of all, that CPD is required or even essential is not in doubt. 'Today's managers, if they are to retain lifelong employability, must commit themselves to lifelong learning. If they do not, they are almost certainly bound to fail' (Schofield 1996). There are a range of factors critical to professional's engagement with and attitudes to CPD, including:

- engagement with CPD cannot be assumed for all individuals, it may depend on an individual's ability to learn, cognitive style, or dispositional factors which are quite separate from their motivation (Abbott and Dahmus 1992, Maguire and Fuller 1997, Bryans et al 1998, Sadler-Smith et al 2000, Davies and Ford 2001)
- over-stringent requirements of an Institute's C.P.D. scheme or a patronising scheme that upsets members may impede engagement (Taylor 1996, Watkins 1999)
- whether a CPD scheme is mandatory or voluntary depends critically on whether CPD engagement is a requirement or a prerequisite to continued accreditation or licence to practice, and even then members may resent having to do it (Madden and Mitchell 1993, Jones and Fear 1994)

- record keeping for CPD is seen by many professionals as a chore, and even if they are favourably disposed towards the idea of CPD they may still resent doing it, unless they aim to professionally upgrade (Harris 1999, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c)
- ownership of CPD needs to rest with individuals otherwise they may feel alienated from the scheme (Taylor 1996, Kennie 1998, Sandelands 1998)
- a lack of a perceived need for CPD on the part of individuals may undermine motivation to engage (Taylor 1996, Gosling 2000)
- professional institutes' CPD schemes should be inclusive in their philosophy and practice, recognising the diversity of membership, their needs and their roles (Viney and Muller 2000)
- CPD should not neglect the benefits of peer learning processes (Critten 1999)
- engagement can be measured through a competence or 'output' approach; or a 'return on investment' or 'outcome' approach. Whichever is used it needs to have perceived benefits for the employee as well as the employer, otherwise CPD will be seen as following an employer-led agenda. (Maguire and Fuller 1997, Sandelands 1998)

A range of research issues were suggested by the literature review. For example, whether individuals actually did perceive a need to engage in CPD was followed up in the qualitative research, as well as the issues of whether CPD was seen as serving employer's needs or their own, and barriers to CPD engagement. The relationships between attributes of the sample and CPD as suggested by for example Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler- Smith and Badger 1998, Sadler-Smith et al. 2000, and the TNS Harris research projects will be compared in chapter 6. The hypothesised correlation between professional commitment and the perceived value of CPD will be considered in chapter 8. Finally, hierarchical regression can be used to examine the predictive ability of on one hand CPD and a range of other variables on employability, and then of a range of variables on CPD itself, while controlling for age, gender, professional level and job level.

Overall this literature review has confirmed that CPD is an under-researched although widely written about field, and worthy of our proper attention in this context. The next section of the literature review explores another much written about but insufficiently researched concept: employability.

3.3 EMPLOYABILITY.

3.3.1 Introduction.

This study focuses on professionals in the workplace. One of the reasons for choosing professional workers as the basis for this study was the belief that these individuals may, through their professional values and professional allegiances that go beyond organisational boundaries, be more independent than most employees of the bonds of organisational loyalty and commitment, and more self-reliant in the employment marketplace. What was needed, was some means of expressing their value or their self-perceived status in this respect as a construct, and at an earlier stage in the research it was believed that employability may have served this purpose. Noting the individual rather than organisational focus of the research, it was hoped that self-perceived employability may prove to be a potentially measurable outcome of the individual's engagement with the employment process (and related to CPD and professional commitment), as well as a potential influencing factor on some of the other variables under investigation, such as engagement with or attitudes to CPD, professional commitment, and self perceptions of career success.

An understanding of what employability is and how it can be measured is therefore central to the research. This has not been easy. Employability as a concept has often been discussed but rarely has any real meaning been attached to the word. As a consequence, to undertake a study including employability means that one may have to address certain credibility problems deriving from over-use of the word and ambiguity as to its meaning. The task of the literature review has been to ascertain if this meaning can be found, or if employability is indeed as Pascale (1995:21) suggested: ' - an ill-thought out concept infused with more hope than substance'. One of the weaknesses in the field is the lack of empirical research. Garavan (1999:4) concluded: 'there is little empirical evidence to support various aspects of the concept'.

The literature review is in two sections. The first section summarises and critically evaluates a range of government and policy related publications. These are often in the careers-related literature: their main contribution was to enable the present study to move towards an operational definition of employability and a deeper understanding of

employability as a construct and a concept. This literature also contributed to the identification of measures of employability, although these will not necessarily have previously been used in empirical research. The second section of the literature review considers some of the academic output in the employability field. Some of this is theoretical in nature but will facilitate understanding, concept building and the identification of measures or components thereof. A smaller part of the academic output is linked to empirical research and should thus directly contribute towards the search for an employability measure appropriate in the present context.

As with some other components of this study (eg. the literature review on CPD), much of the literature uncovered was ultimately found to be purely conceptual, non-original and dealing in generalisations and pious good intentions: much of this was consigned to the 'not used' file. What appears here is an accumulation of three years search: the author believes that the very paucity of this literature is itself a part of the rationale for the present study.

3.3.2. Employability: Origins in Policy and Rhetoric

Even if employability is a concept as Garavan (above) suggested then it is not a new one: Hillage and Pollard (1998:5) identify references going back over seventy years (eg. Haim 1929, Van Deventer 1951, Feintuch 1955) referring to the preparation of 'school students for the world of work'; and Newer (1944:135 et seq.) which is discussed in more detail below. As Tamkin and Hillage (1998:4) suggest, the widespread use of the term originated in the analysis of changing career patterns of the late 1980's, with for example Kanter (1987:321) referring to the need to build 'employability security'. Haigh and Gibbs (1981) had introduced the concept in the context of rising concern about graduate unemployment. Tamkin and Hillage also suggested (1998:4) that the concept underpinned many of the assumptions behind what was then being called the 'new psychological contract', with implicit in much of the output the idea that employability may offer a positive way forward (eg. Herriot and Pemberton 1995). At the same time careers literature especially that which was aimed at graduate employability (eg. Bloch and Bates 1995) and academic output in the same field (eg. Viney et al. 1997) began to use the term, generally as indicating individuals taking responsibility for their own careers. Some of this literature also aimed to promote the idea of training or vocational

qualifications, often in relation to the policies of the government of the day or the European Union (eg. Berkeley 1995:53 et seq.). The first group of literature developed into what has been called in this study academic output, the second into what has been called in this study 'policy publications', which we focus on in this subsection.

Around the late 1990's, as Hillage and Pollard (1998:ix) suggested:
'The concept of employability is central to the current strategic direction of the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE)'
That the word was embraced at government level explains the appearance of a number of reports (as also including Tamkin and Hillage 1999, ILO 1999, Rajan et al. 2000, Lane et al. 2000) on the subject and some of these very substantial documents give a good overview of publications in the field. This will now be discussed in turn in more detail, noting that while these are written from the UK perspective the concern with employability at policy level is not confined to the UK. For example Galvanek (1997:29 et eq.) described an American public-private partnership which aimed to (page 31): 'foster universal employability, career continuity and personal security for the growth and success of US employers, the workforce, and the US economy.' A link is made to the psychological contract literature as: (page 36):
' - the new contract between employers and employees will be based on mutual responsibility, flexibility and a commitment to continuous learning. The equation will be a balance of community and autonomy.'

In the UK for example, Hillage and Pollard (1998:ix) stated on employability that 'the term is used in a variety of contexts with a range of meanings' and set out to develop a definition and to operationalise the concept, with the aim of informing future DfEE policy. Their definition (page 12) summarises their findings well:
'Employability is about the capability to move self-sufficiently within the labour market to realise potential through sustainable employment. For the individual, employability depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes they possess, the way they use those assets and present them to employers and the context (eg. the personal circumstances and labour market environment) in which they work.'

They intended that this definition reflect their suggestion (page xiii) that it was a 'dynamic concept depending on the inter-relationship between the individual and the labour market', which could be measured in a number of ways:

- input measures – eg. vocational qualifications completed, key skills or job search skills acquired, career management training undertaken
- perception measures – either employer's views of their workforce employability or the employee's views of their own employability
- outcome measures – the ability of individuals to get the jobs they want

It should be emphasised that employability as a concept in this study is intended to be quite distinct from, say, adjustment and socialisation, these words describing processes inside organisations that occur after the commencement of new employment. Employability is intended to be a construct that can apply inside or outside organisations, relating to the individual's future rather than their past (career).

What appeared to be missing here however (and is also missing from the literature) was exactly this retrospective element, unless it was implicit: how successful the person has been in maintaining continuous employment, if desired, based on the assumption that this would give positive messages to potential employers. This would however be reflected in the individual's C.V. It can be concluded that what could also be relevant here is some subjective measure of an individual's perceived personal or career success, hence this is a variable introduced later in the literature review.

Hillage and Pollard's report concluded with a number of areas for further research, one being the balance between components of employability. These included firstly an individual's employability assets which could be at three levels:

- baseline assets: basic skills and personal attributes,
- intermediate assets: occupational specific skills, key skills eg communication
- high level assets such as for example team working skills

The second group of components of employability related to what they called (page 17) 'deployment' and included:

- career management skills

- job search skills
- one's strategic approach: adaptability and sense of realism in the labour market

The third group of components related to presentation: one's CV, qualifications, references and testimonies, interview technique, and track record. Finally, Hillage and Pollard suggested that the ability to realise employability assets depended on both individual personal circumstances and external/contextual circumstances, and the inter-relationship between the two. In the former case, these could include caring responsibilities or age; while in the latter case this could include labour market factors and job matching processes. This discussion of the components of employability as encompassing internal/individual and external/contextual attributes proved useful in the development of the employability diagram (see appendices) and ultimately of a measurement instrument. Hillage and Pollard themselves also briefly discuss measures of employability (page 33 et seq.), identifying individual measures reflecting an individual's likelihood or predisposition to get a job, and 'macro measures' (page 34) which consider the workforce as a whole.

Tamkin and Hillage (1999:1) aimed to:
' - pin down the concept of employability and explore employer's involvement in enhancing the employability of their workforce, what they are actually doing and what motivates them.'
Their report focuses more on the employer dimension and offers a very useful contextual overview, some of which has been referred to above, and a contemporary literature review. They reported some of their primary research findings as including an emphasis on (page 7, their italics):
'the skills to compete in internal and external job markets - having the right skills portfolio as well as - professional expertise'
'- fostering relationships and contacts inside and outside - '.
They commented that while much of the employability policy literature emphasised people not in employment, from an employer's perspective (and indeed from an individual perspective who is employed already) it should also encompass people who are now in employment but who want to get a new job, or keep the one they have already. The main thrust of their report was what employers could do to enhance the

employability of their workforce, recognising that they could not often offer a job-for-life, and that it could be good practice to give employees the ability to easily get other work should this be necessary. As such, their work ties in well with literature on psychological contracts and some of the more realistic and modern commitment literature. The emphasis on internal and external labour markets, professional expertise and networking, and skill updating are all highly relevant to the present study.

Two relevant reports by the Create consultancy for the DfEE, are referred to here as Rajan et al (2000), and Lane et al. (2000). They offered two perceptions – one an employee-based study and one based on the employer's perspective. They illustrated the conceptual problems well in that their 900 employer respondents offered over 100 definitions, but summarise these in that it is about (Rajan et al. 2000:2): 'how to obtain a job, how to retain a job and cope with changes in it,' and about how to get another job if made redundant. At the same time, it is also about balancing the business goals of the employer with the personal goals of the individual. They suggested (Lane et al 2000:2) that the debate on employability as a concept reached a peak in the mid- 1990's, and that it appeared to be an 'umbrella term' relating to individual skills as well as organisational and national competitiveness. The present research focuses only on the individual aspect. The employee focused report (Lane et al. 2000), concluded that while job security was never a reality for some, individuals now recognise the importance of maintaining employability, which they defined as 'getting a job – maintaining a job – and sustaining employability for the future.' (page 97). Once again however there appears to be no mention of perceived career success to date, or as one might say: 'where are we now and how did we get here'.

Lane et al. identified (page 59 et seq.) differing individual attitudes towards self in the context of their career, where individuals were characterised as:

- career builders - those aiming to build a career within the organisation, even if they are realistic enough not to expect much progression (noting that 'the death of career has been greatly exaggerated' : page 60)
- job satisficers - (page 60 et seq.) whose main focus in life is outside of work: they may find themselves in companies or roles that offer little commitment in return

- franchise builders - (page 61 et seq.) - those who want to make an impact and create a 'personal branding within their craft or company', with strong emphasis on self-belief
- flexible workers - (page 62 et seq.) who are loyal only to themselves, and do not expect or receive much support.

Lane et al suggested (2000:4 et seq) that individuals use four different tools to ensure success in the job market:

- *network analysis* - evaluating opportunities in organisations and the labour market and using personal networks to advance their career
- *performance analysis* - aligning individual performance with organisational expectations - the extent to which they identify organisational priorities and pursue these themselves
- *employability analysis* - in addition to the two processes above, analysing opportunities inside and outside the organisation and developing the necessary attributes to seize these should they arise
- *career analysis* - long term planning to try to predict and prepare for yet unforeseen circumstances by developing certain attributes.

Intuitively this last point seems a little optimistic as it is suspected (based on the author's five years experience of teaching career development related modules on management courses) that many people never actually introspect about their careers at all. This is perhaps an area for further research.

As to how the individuals are developing relevant attributes, most did not see School or University as significant influences on their approach to learning. Although they were enthusiastic about the concept of lifelong learning, there was heavy emphasis on experiential learning. Lane et al. suggested that (page 6) individuals will: ' - make the extra effort - if they believe they are fairly remunerated, receive recognition, and see their efforts rewarded - '
- the above suggesting a link between learning and career success, at least the objective sort.

Lane et al (2000:18) also reported some cynicism about employer-led initiatives, and suggest that for 'perhaps' one in four employees there is a sense of disenfranchisement in the 'new world of work.'. Their findings suggested (page 19) that one in two of their respondents believed employers provided learning only for the organisation's own benefit, that one in two were not engaged in any learning, that one in four were prevented from learning in some way, one in five believe most people do not want to learn new skills, and three in twenty people in work believe they have serious problems with learning. This makes a strong case for the connection between employability and ability to learn, and influenced the inclusion of items on attitude to learning and andragogy in the present study. The report identifies barriers to learning as including the physical conditions of work (32% of respondents) or a lack of resources (12.4% of respondents).

The report suggested that employability could be represented by the formula:(page 23)

$$E = \frac{P}{B}$$

where B represents the balance of ' - drivers, such as values, expectancy, family organisation, performance, security'; and P represents preparedness including resources, support and tools eg. for planning. The report argued that personal networks and motivation were key factors in the ability find work, and having a strong sense of ones own skills and the ability to market ones-self, and referred to a 'self-employment mindset' as potentially productive. The report concluded that while the concept of employability was supposed to offer an alternative to 'job-for life', achieving this is a matter of re-engaging the motivation and commitment of organisations and individuals, but especially the latter. They suggested that (page 8):

' Employability is about engaging with the world view of the individual - '

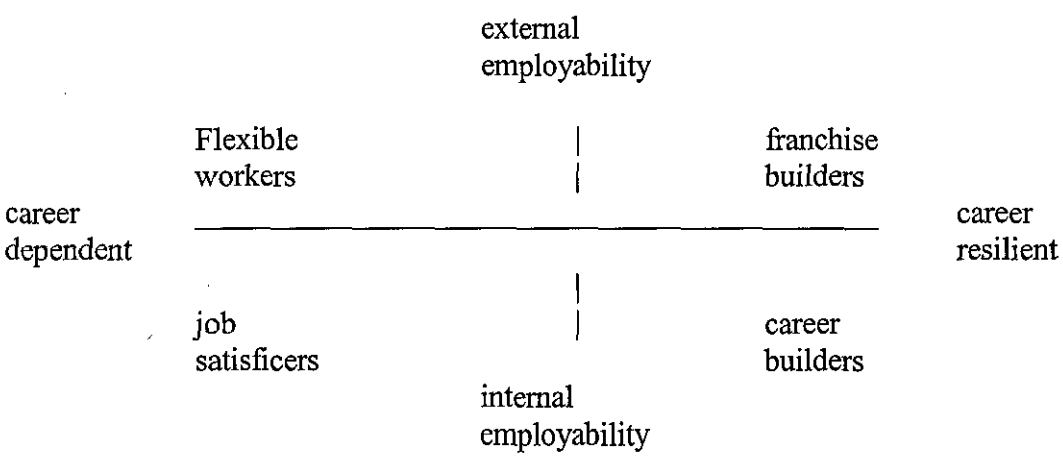
- which is precisely the individual focus aimed for in the present study. Lane et al. noted (page 86) that trust relationships in the workplace also affected the environment for learning, making a connection to the intellectual domain of the psychological contract, which may be an area for further research. Lane et al reinforce the connection between employability and learning (page 59), and make a suggestion of causality, in their assertion that:

'External and internal employability depends upon training, development and other experiential learning that promotes transferable skills and personal attributes'

The employer-focused study (Rajan et al.2000) developed some of the themes from the employee study and suggests a connection (page 4) between the four groups of employees described above (job satsificers etc.), internal and external employability, and career resilience versus career dependency. This relationship is illustrated below as figure 1.

While the report is primarily aimed at promoting employer-led training initiatives, the report is conceptually useful and facilitates further understanding of the contemporary employment context. For example, it developed some of Rajan's earlier work on 'mindset flexibility' (Rajan and Van Eupen 1998) and further promoted the concept of the 'self employment mindset' (page 20 et seq.). They reported that more employers are focusing on the employability of their workforces with the greatest emphasis to deliver

Figure 1: 'Four groups of Employees' from Rajan et al (2000), 'Employability, bridging the gap between rhetoric and reality', Create Consultancy, page 4



this being on individual learning and development plans followed by in-house formal courses and coaching by line managers. One interesting paradox is that the authors reported the loss of many potential coaches and mentors as a result of downsizing at the time when they are most needed. Key contacts for individuals in organisations are listed as (page 84) 'up there' (senior staff), 'over there' (eg. HR and other managers), 'down

here' (eg.one's peers) and 'out there' (friends and family, and, interestingly, the professional body). Both the CREATE publications were useful in the sense of overall concept building (as in internal and external employability, the relationship to learning and development a work), and in the detail (as in how people engage in development).

3.3.3 Theoretical and Empirical Research: Employability

The rationale for undertaking a study of employability was reinforced by the finding that so much of the published output was both repetitive and lacking in originality. What one might expect to be 'academic' sources such as journal publications are no less guilty of this than sources found in, say, business or practitioner magazines. This section will focus on those sources which are considered to make an original contribution which has informed the present research.

In the whole 'employability' literature, the earliest study found by the present research which explicitly mentions employability was Newer (1944:132) which included an employability scale. This was a measure for what were then called welfare departments predicting employment likelihood based on individual characteristics. Newer found that his measure of employability was highest for white, US-born, younger and well educated males, and declined markedly depending on age, gender, race, education, prison record, social background (eg. unemployment), and also some rather interesting 'personality factors' (page 140): 'cannot speak English.....sluggish, dirty clothes, and grouchy'. Some of his terminology is rather quaint (unacceptable today), eg. 'alien', used in a racial context -or under 'home conditions' (page 140), the author's personal favourite: ' - if his home is known to be dirty'. On the racial aspects, Newer expressed concern about the possibly discriminatory nature of his scale but concluded (realistically, if one considers the context of 1940's America) that these were 'an acceptance..... of factors affecting employability'. (page 143)

Not untypical of the more modern writings on employability is Pascale (1995:21 et seq.). In common with much of the academic and practitioner literature this conceptual piece discussed employability as an employer-led dimension of Human Resource Strategy in the context of the changing nature of work and careers and the 'new psychological contract'. Pascale suggested that employability as a concept was a limited one in that it

had only ever applied to a small proportion of the population, and that few employees possessed either the ability for self determination or enjoyed the contextual factors (eg. a supportive employer) to be able to develop employability. He suggested that employability in this sense had been over-promoted as an alternative to the traditional career, and that individuals were still likely to find their experience of a 'Darwinian' labour market a painful one.

Hind et al, as other writers, made a connection to the psychological contract literature in that (page 20):
'A psychological contract which does not promise long term security - does not run the risk of violation - One aspect of the relational dimension of this new psychological contract is the dimension of career resilience.'

Here, this is understood to mean 'positive responses to stress' (page 18), or in career terms the ability to withstand career upheaval. The dimensions of resilience identified included potentially strong links to the professional psyche. They included (page 19):

- power structures: clear structures but without rigidity
- relationships: high trust, mutual support
- reality sense: a resilient self image congruent with reality
- attitude to change: early recognition of the need to change that does not produce undue anxiety
- differentiation: members see themselves as part of the system but retain their own identity
- communication: open clear and frank, with low levels of rumour and gossip

Bagshaw (1996:16 et seq., 1997:187 et seq.) discussed employability in the context of contemporary careers and contemporary psychological contracts, and linked the concept to learning and development at work. He discussed differing employee attitudes to training and development and recognised the dilemma of individual self-interest versus corporate needs. Bagshaw suggested (1996:18 and 1997:189) that it is in employee's and employer's mutual self-interest to enhance employee employability, recognising that

traditional levels of mutual commitment and loyalty may no longer be achievable but that this may be a positive factor rather than an area for concern.

Rajan (1997:67) described employability initiatives in the context of downsizing in the UK banking and finance industry and noted that while there had been some success in promoting the concept of employability as an alternative to job security, 'so far the process is long on intentions and short on deliverables' (page 78). Rajan noted the loss of trust brought about by downsizing initiatives, and the detrimental impact on staff motivation. It is likely that these factors have contributed to the cynicism associated with the over-use of the word employability in the literature.

Eades and Iles (1998) described their search for a measure of 'career resilience'. They described career resilience (page 1) as being at the heart of many conceptions of employability. In their search for an individual measure they made the link to measures of stress resistance, used elements of Cattell's 16PF, an analysis of type A behaviour, and a derived measure of hardiness, and suggested that there remained a need for a new measure of 'career resilience' to be developed, and that resilience was best characterised by low anxiety, challenge meeting, challenge seeking and focus. They noted (page 4) that individuals with an internal locus of control would be more in charge of what happened to them whereas those with an external locus of control would believe they had little capacity to manage situations or outcomes. They concluded that highly career resilient people (page 12) would be attracted by transactional psychological contracts, would proactively plan their careers, and would have possibly benefited from development initiatives.

Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin (1999:1233 et seq.) studied the nature of 'opportunities' in internal, occupational and external labour markets, and although their research is not explicitly about employability it facilitated conceptual development, and will be revisited in the analysis chapters. They suggested, for example that (page 1236):
' - external occupational and internal organisational labour markets provide different opportunity path structures for organisational career trajectories'
- thus reinforcing the view that internal labour markets, external labour markets, and occupational factors are all important and all need to be accounted for. They noted that local variations in labour market conditions may be an influence. They also emphasised

the importance of perceived (subjective) opportunities rather than actual (objective) opportunities due to the imperfect knowledge possessed by individuals, as well as the influence of lived experiences and skills. They also suggested that:
'Gender may also play a role in the perception of opportunities through family status differences, as well as through the social or career basis of how men and women interact with their work environments.' (page 1240)

Klutmans and Ott (1999:261) suggested components of employability as:

- applicable know-how and skills
- know-how of the job market
- and a willingness to be mobile

Usefully, they discussed internal employability (the internal labour market) and external employability (in the external labour market) and suggested (page 267) a relationship between the two types in that: 'If there are more possibilities internally, then there will generally be more possibilities externally'. The authors discussed the strategies for the promotion of internal and external employability, but acknowledge that 'job survival' factors may impede the achievement of long term development goals, such as the pressure to perform well to secure one's employment.

Nielsen (1999:393) linked employability (defined as 'the ability to become employed': page 393) to the concept of 'workability' (which although undefined appears to relate to the ability to 'do work' either physically or mentally) in the context of early retirement of Danish employees. The research was set in the context of a country that had an official retirement age of 67, but where retirement at 61 is more common, due to voluntary or involuntary withdrawal by the individual. This was an empirical study based on telephone interviews with 5575 employees with an 80% response rate. Nielsen found that work ability varied with age with a statistically significant reduction for older workers of either gender. This was mirrored by a negative attitude to future employability and age, with older men reported as the most pessimistic. These findings will bear comparison with the present study even though the sample size is much smaller and the focus somewhat different.

Garavan (1999:1 et seq.) made a conceptual contribution and a useful one in that it integrated some themes from the literature. He suggested that the key difference from an organisational point of view between a traditional 'job security' perspective and employability is the development by the organisation of 'advanced general skills as the source of an organisation's competitive advantage' (page 1). These skills can be contrasted to say specific organisation-focused competencies. The psychological contract is based on the organisation's willingness to develop these skills and the employees acceptance of the need for development. Professionals can be seen as possessing these advanced, beyond-organisation, skills. Garavan summarised key themes from the HRM literature on employability as including (page 2):

- an emphasis for the individual on personal growth and continuous self-renewal
- a self-employment mindset based on primarily individual rather than organisational concerns
- an emphasis on effective team membership as well as leadership
- not expecting job for life but learning so much as to be employable
- an organisational investment in employee-centred learning
- and where employees work with the organisation not for it.

These 'elements of employability' are highly congruent with the theme of the present research and support the research aims and objectives. Garavan also suggested that (page 2):

'It is reasonable to suggest that employability is more likely to be associated with affective and normative type commitment.' and that:

'it is arguable that within an employability concept the notion of job involvement is outdated and represents a hindrance to organisational flexibility and perhaps personal flexibility.' Despite having made a very significant theoretical contribution, Garavan concluded (page 4) that there was 'little empirical evidence to support various aspects of the concept'.

Hallier and Butts (1999:81 et seq.) explored similar themes.;

' - for employers, the solution appears to lie in replacing organisational career, promotion and security with the concept of employability.'

However they took a more cynical view in suggesting developments such as learning organisations and employer-led training initiatives had more to do with a desire by

employers to retain control of their employees rather than a genuine interest in their development.

Ball (2000:30 et seq.) suggested that the components of employability include motivation and determination, basic skills such as literacy and numeracy, the level of learning achieved by the individual, and mobility of place, sector and role. Interestingly Ball's theoretical piece warned of spending too much time with the peer group because of a perceived dumbing-down effect (by which he perhaps meant an exposure to too narrow a range of experiences), and emphasised the value of learning in a range of contexts.

Mallough and Kleiner's (2001:118) linked concepts of employability to pay and objective success. They listed a range of 'internal employability factors' and 'external employability factors'. The former included: management skills, technical skills, communication skills, organisational skills, job-specific skills, a range of general factors relating to presentation and impression management, psychological attributes, networking ability, education and training and skills in dealing with selection processes. They linked external employability to (page 119) 'wage earning capacity', and linked this to industry, company size, occupation, region, preparedness to relocate or travel, and internal salary factors such as job level and responsibility, occupational specialism, contribution, and estimated future contribution and risk Their list is useful though unfounded in empirical research, and is highly congruent with the employability elements of the present research instrument, even if the issues are sometimes implicit such as dealing with selection processes or skill acquisition.

At a late stage in the research an empirical study was discovered that had developed a scale of employability. Van der Heijden's (2002:44 et seq.) work was published after the application of the first phase of the quantitative survey and was thus found too late to inform the present study. In fact, publication of Van der Heijden's study post-dated the distribution of the first phase of this study's questionnaire by three months. Earlier, related publications (eg. Van der Heijden 2000) were only found on scrutiny of the bibliography from her 2002 article, despite extensive keyword searches on employability undertaken continuously since 1999. However as the general domain of the research is not dissimilar to the present study it is worthy of detailed consideration here. In addition

her studies are methodologically useful in suggesting analyses of the data. Van der Heijden set out to establish whether 'employees in possession of a high degree of professional expertise' could 'look forward to unlimited mobility and employability'. (page 44). Employability here is defined as 'the capability of being employed in a job', aligning employability with functional flexibility that allowed re-deployment. She also considered employees' ability to cope with new job assignments and re-employment in different fields. She defined professional expertise (pp. 45-46) as first comprising the different types of knowledge 'inherent to a certain professional field', possessing self - insight, and possessing the skills needed to do the required professional tasks. A fourth dimension relates to one's recognition as possessing professional expertise 'as a promising employee', which was suggested to correlate with one's potential to experience further development. Fifth, the dimension of growth and flexibility related to one's ability to master a completely new area of expertise, such as for example technological change (page 46). This attempt at a definition of what professional knowledge actually is has hitherto been an omission in the present research, which has tended to assume that a given level professional status, and having professional expertise went hand in hand, and that the real issue was in keeping these up to date. In this respect the present study focuses on one element of the knowledge domain - its development - rather than inherently what it is. As the present research focuses on one professional area where one might assume a certain commonality of knowledge (as embodied for example in the CIPD Professional Standards), then a focus in this present project simply on updating is felt to be appropriate. If however a further study was undertaken, perhaps which crossed professional disciplines, then a consideration of the nature of the professional knowledge deployed could be relevant.

Van der Heijden quoted earlier studies (eg. Boerlijst 1994, Boerlijst and Van der Heijden 1996) which found that re-employability declined and then got even worse when entering the later stages of career, noting in addition that 'traditional functions can lose their utility suddenly and often unexpectedly' (page 47). This is an interesting observation, and as an anecdotal example one might consider a traditional function such as typesetting in the print industry which was replaced quite suddenly by technological change at the end of the 20th century. Observers of the Human Resources profession in the UK (the focus of the present study) will have noted the early 21st century trend towards outsourcing HR functions such as payroll, training and recruitment. Thus the

professional sample themselves are not immune to 'knowledge obsolescence' (Pazy 1992:251). That: 'The senior group of the over-50's is thought to be almost completely unemployable' (page 47) is worrying, especially for those approaching that thresh-hold!

Van der Heijden hypothesised that age and employability were negatively related, that knowledge and skills affected employability, that the degree of recognition affects the likelihood of transition, and that personal flexibility is also positively related to employability. The sample size was over 550, and the sample differed from the present study in a marked skew towards male respondents (83.4%). These were also analysed by age distribution and organisational level. Questions for perceptions of skill and expertise were filled in by the employee and the supervisor and the results compared, employability questions by the employees only.

Employability was treated as a dependent variable and measured using an eight-item scale as below (Table 5). Interestingly, the conceptual basis for the question design is similar to the present study in that it represents a systematic approach on graduated scale from 'in the same domain as the present job' - to - an equivalent job outside the

---

Table: 5: **The Scale of Employability: from Van der Heijden B., (2002), 'Prerequisites to guarantee life-long employability', Personnel Review, Volume 31, No. 1, p. 44-61**

What is the likelihood of transition to another job in the same domain as your present job?
What is the likelihood of transition to another job in another domain as your present job?
What is the likelihood of transition to another job in your own organisational unit?
What is the likelihood of transition to a higher job in your own organisation or concern?
What is the likelihood of transition to a higher job outside your organisation or concern?
What is the likelihood of transition to an equivalent job in your own organisational unit?
What is the likelihood of transition to an equivalent job in your own organisation or concern?
What is the likelihood of transition to an equivalent job outside your own organisation or concern?

---

employee's own organisation or concern' (page 52). However it could be argued that the scale in the present study goes further (and deeper) in that it integrates aspects of the internal and external labour market, and individual and occupational factors. Van der Heijden's question items however explicitly differentiate between another job, a higher job, and an equivalent job. Cronbach's alpha for Van der Heijden's scale was 0.68. For this measure, Van der Heijden found (page 53) that older employees had lower employability, but that their employability improved if they had growth potential. Only a weak or negligible association between employability and professional knowledge was found, with the exception being the new entrants to work and the middle-aged respondents. She suggested that her scale of employability also related to opportunities available to employees in the light of enhancement of their employability, but suggested that this could be 'contaminated' by opportunities for transfer, job market factors, or organisational structure. The answer for future studies may be either to control for these factors, or to build them into the measure. Van der Heijden suggested that employee willingness and managerial perceptions would also need to be taken account of, and that research (literature plus interview) using 'highly qualified and highly employable experts may lead to a refinement - and to an operationalisation of employability that is valuable in all kinds of domains employing professionals with varying levels of expertise'. (pp 57-58). It is believed that the present study, using similar to the suggested methodology, but a more homogenous sample, goes a long way towards achieving this aim. Van der Heijden concluded with comments relating to the importance of not allowing oneself to operate in too narrow a skill domain and to be prepared to seek new experiences, especially in the context of a shortening life-cycle for occupations (page 59).

Van der Heijden's study certainly accounted for many of the internal and external factors identified in the present literature review, and recognised the potential importance of professional expertise as a component of employability, which the present study has under-emphasised (although one could argue it is represented by CPD and CIPD membership). One might argue that the Van der Heijden study is more about life and work transitions than employability *per se*, and also that in incorporating explicit question items relating to 'a higher job' that there is a risk of confusing employability with objective career success. However the fact remains that in this very new field of research on individual employability, Nielsen's (somewhat related), Van der Heijden's and the present study were, at the time of writing, the *only* known empirical studies.

Baruch (2001:543), in recognising the conceptual problems arising from the over-use of the word employability, undertook an exploratory study to examine employer's reactions to the idea of employability, looking for what he called 'real meaning'. As this was an exploratory study, qualitative research methods involving interviews with individuals at HR Director level were undertaken. Baruch's research made a strong link to existing research in the field of psychological contracts, and also his own, earlier work on the changing nature of careers (Pieperl and Baruch 1997). Baruch's research suggested that in promoting the idea of employability organisations may well create a de-stabilised employment relationship, meaning that individuals may well feel less attachment to the organisation, and that this would be illogical as an organisational HR strategy. In fact, this may well be exactly the point about employability: it is the increased focus onto the individual in the contemporary employment market that means that it is increasingly necessary for people to be able to look after themselves and not to be so beholden to organisations. In the context of the present research self-sufficient professionals who function both inside and outside organisations may well have more chances of success and sustainability than individuals with stronger organisational ties. The article unintentionally reinforces the point that there are actually two meanings of employability in the contemporary literature. The first is (Baruch's and others) an aspiration by employers that certain Human Resource strategies will provide their workforce with transferable knowledge and skills so that should they need to seek alternative employment, they can do. The second is that represented by Van der Heijden's research and the present research project which is an individual measure of an employee's ability to retain their present job or get another one. It is suggested that much of the credibility gap associated with the over-use of the word is actually due to the loose useage of 'employability' to mean two quite different things.

3.3.4 Conclusions and methodological implications: employability

What conclusions can we draw about employability based on the literature reviewed? Firstly, in the context of the present study it is important to be clear what is actually understood by employability and to emphasise the individual focus (ie. what people understand about their own options). This is distinct to the organisational or government policy foci; or the conception of employability as a Human Resources Strategy promoted

by organisations, as an alternative to career or job-for-life, and as described by Pascale (1995) or Rajan (1997).

In the present study employability is owned by the individual, and relates to their self perceptions. From the literature key themes emerge, with a strong consensus from a number of writers, along two continua: the internal versus the external labour market, and the individual's attributes (eg. the ability to cope with job changes) as distinct from the attributes (eg. other's perceptions of) the profession. Firstly, the concept of employability as having both an internal and an external dimension is widely accepted (Hillage and Pollard 1998, Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin 1999, Tamkin and Hillage 1999, Klutmans and Ott 1999, Lane et al 2000, Rajan et al. 2000). The individual dimension includes one's knowledge and skills (Hillage and Pollard 1998), the state of the internal labour market in one's organisation (Tamkin and Hillage 1999), one's capacity for learning (Bagshaw 1996, Lane et al 2000), one's mastery of career management and job search (Hillage and Pollard 1998), and finally professional knowledge (Van der Heijden 2002).

The external factors include the state of the contemporary external labour market (Hillage and Pollard 1998, Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin 1999, Lane et al. 2000, Rajan et al. 2000), and may also incorporate factors related to the demand for one's occupation (Mallough and Kleiner 2001). This external dimension also has the potential to incorporate some notion of 'boundarylessness' as in freedom from organisational career processes and constraints (Arthur 1994). There is some consensus around the notion of 'resilience' or sustainability (Iles 1997, Rajan 1997, Rajan et al. 2000), analogous to personal efficacy and sometimes measured in similar ways (Hind et al. 1996, Eades and Iles 1998). Some of the few empirical studies identified so far have also linked employability and age as being negatively correlated (Nielsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002), and this will be an important area for comparison with the present study in a UK context albeit restricted to one occupational group. Finally, employability may be an affective construct (Garavan 1999) - one's self perception of employability relates to one's attitude to a range of attributes, as listed above.

Employability for the purposes of the present study is *defined as the ability to keep the job one has or to get the job one wants*. This definition incorporates both aspects of

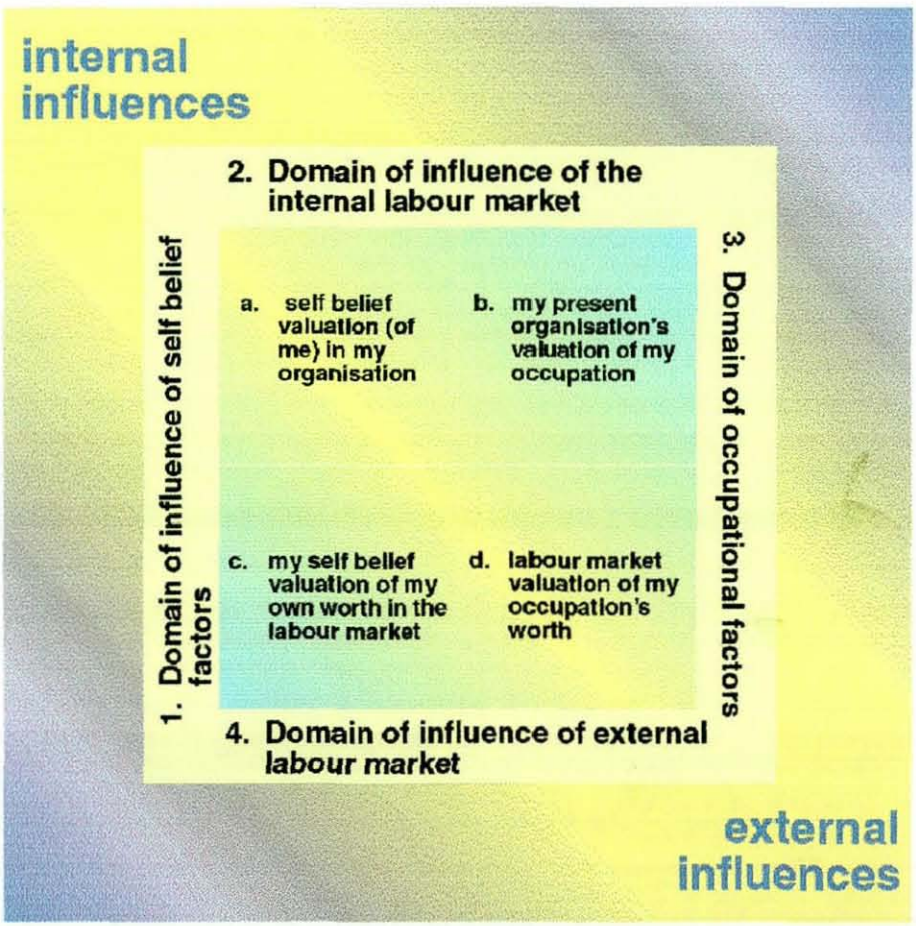
future success (Van der Heijden 2002), and sustainability (Iles 1997). Care will however be needed to ensure that this conception of employability is a distinctive construct from subjective career success on one hand and personal efficacy on the other.

From the literature reviewed there appear to be two main dimensions of employability that affect individuals, and four subsidiary dimensions. The first of the main dimensions is *internal employability,* which has two components. First, one's internal self belief about one's likely performance in relation to for example opportunities inside and outside one's own organisation, incorporating a self-perception of one's skills, and the respect accorded to one as an individual and in relation to one's occupation. The second component of internal employability is the nature of the internal labour market in one's employing organisation: the extent to which one can effect job changes without having to move organisation. For example, if the organisation promotes a policy of filling vacancies from within, this will enhance an individual's opportuntities for sustainable employment. The second main dimension is *external employability:* the first part of this is how one actually fares in the external labour market based on the evaluations of others, such as one's performance in selection events. The second part of this recognises the demand for one's occupation - even the most adept interviewee could not guarantee employment success if one's occupation is very obscure or outdated. It can be seen that this labelling includes internal and external perceptions of employability (ie. by oneself and others) in relation to both internal and external labour markets - employability is thus a (potentially) four-dimensional construct.

The interrelationship of the internal and external dimensions and the internal and external labour market are illustrated Figure 2 overleaf as a simple diagram, The aim of the diagram was to summarise the key themes from the literature. Note that this was not meant to be a model to be subjected to analysis at this stage, merely to illustrate the complexity of the relationships involved. Recognising and blending together a range of themes from the literature as above, allowed a more sophisticated conception of employability as a construct, and was then used to systematically develop a measure for empirical research. This was not intended as an aim of the research, rather a matter of necessity because a suitable measure was not found in good time.

- In figure 2 the four outside edges of the diagram represent the four subsidiary

Figure 2: Internal and External Influences on Employability



dimensions of employability. Note that these are not mutually exclusive, there are some overlaps. The four dimensions are identified as:

- *self belief or 'me' factors*: for example one's self belief about one's skills, job performance, networking ability and awareness of opportunities
- *internal labour market or 'organisation' factors*: for example how the individual believes they are regarded in their employing organisation, how well their occupational group is regarded, one's internal networking ability, awareness of internal opportunities.
- *occupational factors*: the extent to which an individual believes their professional peer group are respected internally, and in demand externally
- *external labour market factors:* one's belief about one's ability to deal with selection processes outside of one's organisation, one's awareness of external opportunities and one's external networking ability.

To illustrate the how this may work in practice, in quadrant 'a' one finds an individual's self valuation of their own worth to their employing organisation. That is, the valuation the organisation places on them as a person as they see it themselves, although this is influenced by their perception of quadrant 'b': how the organisation values (against a variety of measures: monetary, utility, expendability, scarcity of skills, difficulty of replacement) their occupation or occupational group. For example a 'new' University may place a higher value on lecturers who can deliver high levels of income generation through lucrative industry contracts, than on individuals who can teach HRM who are relatively easier to find or develop.

The relationships are made even more complex by the need to consider not just individual/internal factors but how one's occupational group is perceived internally (eg. accountants in an NHS Trust) as against externally eg. accountants in the external labour market. (quadrants c and d) This has the potential to demonstrate why NHS Trusts have retention problems with certain professional groups such as accountants once they acquire full 'qualified' status, and thus are at the time of writing starting to pay a premium salary to this group to reduce turnover.

This section of the literature review set out to discover if real meaning for the construct

could be found, and if it could be measured. Both of these aims have been achieved. Figure 2 represents the progress made on identifying what employability is, namely a multi-faceted concept that incorporates internal and external influences on the self perceived valuation of the individual and their occupation by their employing organisation and the external labour market. As the literature review did not (at the time) unearth a suitable measure, the diagram was used to systematically develop a research instrument based on the matrix shown in figure 2. This process is described in more detail in chapter 4.

The development of the employability scale prompted a series of further research questions, quite apart from the hypothesised correlation between subjective career success and employability examined in chapter 6, followed by a further exploration of the ability of other study variables to predict variances in employability using multiple hierarchical regression. The originality of the employability scale meant that its psychometric properties were unknown, and these are explored in chapter 6, including:

- the identification of components of the scale using factor analysis, which suggested the presence of two sub-scales, corresponding to internal and external employability
- the extent to which there might be redundancy between the employability scale and that used for subjective career success.

Further research questions could not be clearly expressed as hypotheses, partly due to the exploratory nature of this aspect of the research and the absence of background literature. For example, in relation to CPD, would individuals who believe their employability to be low be more likely to engage in CPD to enhance employability, or would they 'give up' on CPD, regarding their employability as a lost cause? Would individuals who regarded their employability as high continue to pursue CPD to sustain their employability, or again would they not be bothered with CPD because they see no employment-related benefit in doing so - they are employable enough already?

The development of the scale of employability is considered to be a major outcome of the research project and presents substantial potential for continuing research. The next and final section of this chapter represents a literature review relating to the final variable under consideration in this study: career success.

3.4 Career Success

3.4.1 Introduction

To simply focus on employability as a future-orientated construct was to neglect the history of the individuals who made up the sample. For this reason it was decided to incorporate a measure of how successful people feel already (career success), as this may influence the sample's perceptions of their professional status, their desire or willingness to engage with CPD, and their perceptions of their employability in the future. Although career success is a well established research field, its relationship with the other study variables (professional commitment, CPD, employability) was unknown, although in the case of employability a strong theoretical rationale emerged (see below) for a suggested relationship, hence the hypothesised correlation. With CPD the relationship was seen as more problematic in a similar way to that for employability above, for example:

- would individuals who believe themselves be successful already, pursue CPD to sustain their success or
- would they be disinclined to pursue CPD because they would see no (success-related) advantage in doing so?
- would individuals who had not been successful so far pursue CPD in the hope that it might bring them future success or
- would they not bother to pursue CPD because again they see no advantage in doing so and were 'satisficing' in their career?

Although the literature review was helpful in identifying measures of career success, there remain substantial opportunities for clarifying the above issues beyond the scope of this project.

In the present study the approach taken has been to focus initially on more recent literature relating to career success as these should be more likely to reflect conditions prevailing in the contemporary labour market. For example, one especially notable source is Nabi (1999:212 et seq.), which is essentially a summary of a PhD. thesis (Nabi 1998). He (1999:212) introduced the field well with his suggestion that the literature integrating the terms *career* and *success* referred to: ' - *objective* and *subjective* elements

of achievement and progress of an individual through the vocational life-span.' (Italics added).

Nabi suggested that typically objective career success is measured using criteria that may be consistent with 'society's evaluation of achievement' (page 212), including salary level, salary progression, job or managerial level, promotions, upward career mobility, occupational prestige, financial responsibility or control over subordinates. Subjective career success reflects the individual's own perceptions of factors such as job success, work-life balance, remuneration, and career prospects; these relating to their own internal standards. Nabi suggested that both types of success were important although researchers have tended to focus on one or the other. Nabi suggested (page 212) that most recent research emphasised subjective success, which appears to be consistent with the view of other writers.

For example Arnold (1997:191) had noted that:

'Factors like promotions, organisational levels attained and salary are becoming less viable as criteria of career success as delayered structures, project teams and short term contracts become more common. More personal criteria such as employability and career satisfaction are becoming more useful - '.

This would appear to reinforce the concept of employability as a personal outcome that individuals might perceive as distinct from career success, although one could equally argue the case that employability *is* a form of career success, hence the need for the analysis undertaken in chapter 6. Arnold's views appear to be consistent with the vision of the changing nature of work promoted by for example Jackson (1996), Arthur and Rousseau (1996), Pieperl and Baruch (1997), and the literature on boundaryless careers.

Nabi (1999.212) suggested 'three approaches to the study of career success', namely the individual approach, the structural approach, and the behavioural approach. These will now be considered in turn. In the *individual approach*, attributes such as motivation, ambition or work centrality are emphasised. This can also include attributes often described as 'human capital' such as educational attainment and mental ability. According to Nabi (pp 212-213), the theory suggested that 'individuals make educational investments in themselves because they perceive a pay-off in the future, and that the labour market tends to reward individuals' value relative to their educational assets.' As an example of research in this category, Melamed (1996:58) found, in a study based on a

sample from the general working population, that the highest success (measured as salary and managerial level) is reported by experienced, educated and intelligent men, who exhibited an independent, tough and confident personality style, and who had no family commitments.

In the *structural approach*, the range of opportunities in the organisational structure are emphasised, including 'ladders' and organisational size, and the role of the internal labour market. Nabi suggested that both objective and subjective career success were affected by these variables. Similarly Melamed (1996:59) found that organisational structure (and human capital attributes) had a greater effect on career success of mid or late career employees than new entrants to the labour market - 'career stage' being the sub-theme of her research. In the present study 'human capital attributes' are incorporated in the 'me' dimension of the measure of employability developed for the present research.

In the *behavioural approach,* individuals take control of their career and actively work at promoting it, including strategies such as self-promotion, skill-development, career networking, consultation with mentors and supportive alliances, and extended work involvement. Nabi suggested (page 214) that these strategies could positively influence both objective and subjective career success.

In the present research all three approaches are recognised to some extent. Age, gender, organisational type and organisational level are descriptive measures, and although there is no discrete measure of ambition this may be an area for extension at a later date. The measure of employability represented in appendix three includes the role of the internal labour market as well as the external labour market in incorporating the individual's perceptions of 'ladders' and opportunities. The behavioural approach is also relevant in that the sample were selected because, as professionals, one might expect them to be in control of their careers, and CPD is a behavioural strategy for career promotion as well as personal development. Recognising the importance of all three approaches, the remainder of this section focuses on the search for an appropriate measure of career success.

3.4.2 Measuring Career Success

The focus of the present research is on the individual's own attitudes to a range of factors: CPD, affective aspects of professional commitment, self-perceptions of employability. For this reason the emphasis in this section of the research is on the individual's self-perceptions of success, which as Nabi (1999:212) suggested is represented by *subjective success*. For this reason the following section focuses on the search for a valid and reliable measure of subjective career success appropriate to professional workers in a 21st-century context.

Gattiker and Larwood (1986:78 et seq.) set out to identify what they called the 'factors' of subjective career success, being among the first academics to suggest that there was more to career success than externally perceived rewards and progression. They had observed that many of the practitioner texts on career success at the time focused on hierarchical progression and salary. Their research instrument was developed from earlier research by Gattiker (1985) identifying through the use of open ended questions five potential factors of subjective career success, which suggested that any measure of career success had to recognise the importance of non-work personal success outcomes. Of the five factors, four of these related to 'organisational success' and one to 'non organiational success' (page 86). The first four were job success, interpersonal success, financial success, and hierarchical success. The fifth brought in aspects of life success. they also introduced aspects related to 'occupational self-concept' which they defined (1986:81) as people's beliefs about themselves in the workplace. Their scale items informed a number of later studies (eg Nabi 1998, 1999), including the present one. They concluded (page 90) that career success 'should be placed within the larger context of the person's life' and that it was important to account for an individual's own assessment of their success and their occupational self-concept.

Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990:73), in a study of the effects of race on job performance and career outcomes, developed a five-item scale of career satisfaction, reproduced below. While on first encounter some of these (eg. income, advancement) may appear to relate more to objective success, the subtlety in the wording is significant. The questions emphasise the respondent's own satisfaction levels (and thus attitudes to) these objective outcomes, and is thus a measure of subjective success. Greenhaus et al.

Table 6: Career Satisfaction: from Greenhaus J.H., , Parasuraman S., and Wormley W., (1990), 'Effects of Race on Organizational Experiences, Job Performance Evaluations, and Career Outcomes', Academy of Management Journal , Vol. 33, No. 1, p.86

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills

report (page 73) an internal correlation coefficient of .88 for this scale, which has been used in its entirety in the present study, with some additional items. The study found that the model proposed for career outcomes was a complex one with a number of mediating variables, and was principally about the influence of race on job performance ratings. The present study has not however considered race as a factor, not least because ethnic minority representation amongst CIPD members is relatively low, and a meaningful sample would be difficult to achieve. Aspects related to race and ethnicity may well be an issue for further research at a later date, perhaps with a broader sample. Nonetheless the question items shown above have provided an excellent basis for the scale used in the present study representing as they do the individual's perceptions of their objective success factors - hence a subjective career success scale.

One example of a study that took a simplistic, objective view was that by Hoeksma et al. (1997:307.). They investigated the 'relations between the learning behaviour of managers and their career success, as well as the moderating role of organisation structure - ' (page 307), electing to measure career success simply by 'position attained' (page 308). The main focus of this piece of research is on whether the managers surveyed engaged in deep or surface learning, which related to 'understanding the meaning of a task' and 'factual, isolated pieces of data' respectively. The research found (page 320 et seq.) that deep learning fostered career success, while surface learning

impeded it, but only where the manager's tasks were not closely prescribed. Where this was the case, surface learning, especially in highly specialised organisations with high levels of centralisation of control, was beneficial to career success. Noting Hoeksma et al's cautions about the generalisability of their results (page 323), nonetheless these findings bear comparison to the present data where respondents have been asked to identify the learning strategies (CPD) they have engaged in. Although some inference is necessary to identify whether these have involved deep or surface learning, it will be observed (see chapter six) that the items towards the top if the descriptive list are mostly organisationally located 'surface' strategies. Hoeksma et al conclude (page 324) with a further interesting conceptual link, in that deep learning may be more appropriate to contemporary career forms that emphasise boundarylessness rather than specialisation. Thus one could also suggest that professionals should avoid over-specialisation, or too heavy a reliance on organisation-focused learning, and that generic professional competence may well correlate with career success.

Nabi's research, introduced above and a summary of his PhD. thesis, provided some moderately useful measures (1999:215 et seq.) of both objective career success (the respondent's current self-reported gross salary), and subjective success, although in the present study greater selectivity in scale composition has been used. Nabi's career success items related to past, present and future perceptions of career success, in particular five success factors or 'outcomes': job, financial, hierarchical, interpersonal and life success, and were adapted (by Nabi) from Gattiker and Larwood 1986, Aryee 1994, and Symonds 1996. As a criticism of his scale, the scale items were heavily organisation-focused (eg. 'my job title is indicative of my progress and my responsibility in the organisation'), whereas for many individuals in contemporary careers some measure of success beyond the organisation may be more appropriate. Nabi had rejected some of Gattiker and Larwood's original items (eg: 'I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself'), on the basis that (in his case) it was 'confusing', yet (in the present context) it would seem to have some utility. Nabi concluded (page 221) that employees with high levels of work centrality, who networked frequently, and who perceived employment security and structured career progression felt the most objectively successful, although ambitious employees experienced lower levels of subjective career success. However employment security and structured career progression now only apply to a limited number of employees. That Nabi's research was

based on a sample of University sector employees, both academics and administrators is also noteworthy. At the time his fieldwork was conducted (1997?) there had been little downsizing and considerable growth in the sector in the previous decade. In the period following his research there has been considerable downsizing in parts of the sector and this looks set to continue. His results could have been very different had the research been conducted in say 2002. Reference back (page 219) to 'vacancy chain models' (he quoted White 1970) may be less than relevant in the contemporary post-delayered, organisational context. Nabi's work appears to support the view that the concept of boundarylessness has been rather over-sold in that he suggests that there are signs that individuals *and* organisations now want to retain the traditional career forms. Another criticism of his research lies in the choice of an academic sample: declining levels of pay relative to other occupations would have a substantial impact on objective success, and given his choice of 'subjective' items would affect these too, thus limiting the generalisability of the results.

Nabi found (page 218) that education, organisational size, structured career progression and work centrality all affected objective success. For subjective success, he described the picture as 'more complex'. He found that internal labour market factors such as security or progression opportunities were important, as were networking and work centrality. He found that 'ambition tended to thwart subjective feelings of career success' (page 218). Nabi found no link between mental ability and objective career success, nor were ambition or work centrality related, although he suggested that ambitious people may not perceive themselves as having 'made it' by a certain age, referring obliquely to what is sometimes called the individual's 'subjective timetable' (Arnold 1997). Nabi also found that the presence of an internal labour market, and the ability to network were strong influences on perceptions of subjective success.

What are the implications of Nabi's findings (1998, 1999, 2000) for the present project? On the negative side for example, there were significant conceptual overlaps between Nabi's influences on career success and the present research's operationalisation of employability, in that both incorporate factors relating to organisation structure, and the internal labour market. This may indicate the potential for the concept of employability in the present research to fall victim to construct redundancy at a later stage. This line of argument was somewhat supported by a later piece by the same author (Nabi 2000:91 et

seq.). Here, his listing (page 93) of 'career enhancing strategies' such as 'developing expertise in areas that are critical to my department's operations' showed significant conceptual overlap with some of the measures of employability employed in the present study (eg: 'the skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation.'). The challenge is, to demonstrate that employability is a distinct construct to career success or career enhancement, and that the measures used in the present study for engagement with CPD are professionally and developmentally focused rather than generic strategies for career enhancement.

In a later, related publication, Nabi (2000:93) hypothesised that organisational experiences such as opportunities for advancement and job security would be positively related to career enhancing strategies such as expertise development and networking; and that motivation attributes such as work centrality would be positively related to those same career enhancing strategies. Nabi found moderate support for these hypotheses, but found that advancement motivation was not related to proactive networking, and that work centrality was not related to self-nomination. In the present study, networking, expertise development and self-promotion are included as 'employability' factors. The generalisability of Nabi's work is again limited by the use of a University-employed sample, where one might argue that the very specific nature of the employment and organisation culture may not be readily applicable to other work contexts.

Some authors have alluded to negative aspects of career success (non-success?) in relation to age, and sometimes in the context of the career plateau, as for example Korman et al. (1981) and Allen, Russell, Poteet and Dobbins (1999). Allen et al. identified two distinct kinds of career plateau: the first related to hierarchical progression, the second to job content, and both related to the employee's self-perceptions, hence these are subjective measures. Their findings suggested that educational level was actually positively related to hierarchical plateauing, and it was suggested that this could be explained by well educated employees entering their organisations at a higher level but running out of (scarcer, high level) promotion possibilities more quickly. They also noted individuals from age 30 reported higher levels of hierarchical plateauing than those who were younger, but with little significant variation beyond then. They concluded that where individuals had a 'learning and development orientation', that may avoid future plateauing, and career planning and

career exploration would further facilitate this. This suggests that there may well be relationships between age and subjective career success, and that the negative effects of age could be moderated by CPD.

A number of writers have considered gender issues in relation to career progression and career success. Van Eck Peluchette (1993:198 et seq) followed Gattiker and Larwood (1986) in linking career success with conceptions of 'self', here observing that subjective career success may be a 'shorthand measure' of self esteem and a sense of personal competence. She concluded that as a consequence individuals who did not feel successful could run the risk of career alienation, with the important point that women may have a greater tendency to this than men. Van Eck Peluchette also pointed (page 206) to the dangers of what she called 'multiple role stresses' arising from balancing home and work, and that this especially applied to women. Melamed (1996:38) likewise suggested that:

'There is voluminous evidence that professional and managerial women face a glass ceiling.'

Melamed concluded that variables such as educational level and gender (among many others) had a stronger effect on later career success than for those at an earlier career stage.

Thomas and Dunkerley (1999:159) suggested that delayering, with concomitant demands to work longer hours, be more flexible, and to still manage work-life balance issues, had had a greater impact on women than men in management roles. They concluded that: (page 168):

'Under the norms of performance within the organisation, women can compete, but only if they are willing and able to subordinate family and home to company and career.'

- with the suggestion that this applies to women to a greater extent than to men.

Similarly, Simpson and Altman (2000:190 et seq.) also considered gender issues in relation to career progression and career success, and although their measure of the latter is not explicitly described it can be inferred to relate to salary and organisational level. Simpson and Altman concluded (page 197) that while young women managers outpace their male counterparts, the (page 193) 'older women were more likely to experience career barriers than younger women'. The 'glass ceiling' barriers intensify in their effect

the higher up the organisation one progresses, although the subsequent filtering effect means that those women who do manage to progress are individuals of exceptional calibre. These findings bear interesting comparison with the present study (especially in the descriptive statistics: chapter six) where the majority of respondents are female but where men self-report as occupying the more senior positions, with varying (though not statistically significant) responses in respect of their career success. However it must be noted that a snapshot at a point in time as represented by Simpson and Altman's research is affected by the longitudinal nature of the individual's careers. Older women will have worked in an historical context where discrimination was more prevalent, whereas younger women's careers may (hopefully?) have occurred in a more enlightened context. The potential for generalising the older women's experiences to the younger women's (projected, future) careers is thus limited.

In a piece again related to his earlier research, Nabi (2001:457 et seq.) examined the differential predictors of subjective career success (SCS) between men and women, noting (page 458) that most of the research hitherto had been related to objective success, and of men. Nabi suggested (page 459) that males might emphasise the objective and females the subjective aspects. Nabi hypothesised that organisational progression issues would be more positively related to SCS for men than women. He also suggested that fairness issues (eg. security and fairnesss of treatment) would be more positively related to SCS for women than men; and also that men engage more in networking support, while women engage more in personal support. Nabi's findings suggested that while men tended to receive less peer support than women, the peer it was received from tended to be more influential, perhaps pointing to a mentoring relationship. Nabi found that women with higher levels of personal support tended to feel more successful in their careers. Nabi found however that the men and women in his study placed a similar emphasis on career progression, suggesting that beliefs relating to SCS are converging between the sexes. Nabi concluded that there is (page 471) 'a paucity of research on male-female differences in SCS prediction', and that the differences that were the findings of his research, though modest, were significant and worthy of further investigation, perhaps longitudinally.

Kelly and Gennard (2002:25 et seq.) analysed the career paths of senior HR professionals in sixty-two organisations. They found (page 27) that individuals from a

generalist HR background were the ones who were most likely (by their own definition) to 'reach the top', but that a zig-zag career pathway (in and out of HR) was the most common career route. They cited the key qualities of an effective HR Director as business acumen, and strategic decision making, the latter being a key training need identified by the sample in the present study. Many claimed to operate at a strategic level (as did many of the CIPD respondents), but this did not necessarily go hand in hand with membership of the board of directors or equivalent. This could indicate that the influence of senior HR practitioners may be greater than their titles would sometimes suggest, or alternatively a tendency of individuals to talk-up their level of influence.

3.4.3 Career Success: conclusions and methodological implications .

As a construct, career success differed from some of the other fields of study in that there existed already an established empirical literature. The challenge in the present project has been to identify measures relevant to the nature of the project (affective, subjective), the professional sample, and the contemporary work context. While the scale construction is described more fully in chapter four, this can be summarised as incorporating items from Gattiker and Larwood (1986), Nabi (1998), and Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (2001).

The study by Hoeksma et al. (1997) which investigated the relationship between career success and deep or surface learning raised some possible issues about another variable in the present study: continuing professional development. In the present study, respondents have been asked to identify on a descriptive list which CPD strategies they engage in and to what extent.

Nabi's publications in this field have proved to be most useful in both summarising earlier research and in conceptual development. Nabi's suggestion (2000:93) that engaging in 'career enhancing strategies' influenced career success indicated a possible link to CPD. There may intuitively appear to be conceptual similarities between subjective career success and employability. However it is suggested that in the present body of research employability is a quite distinct construct to career enhancement, where

the focus in employability is on an individual's beliefs about their future, whilst career success relates to perceptions of their past and present.

There are a range of factors related to perceptions of career success which especially relate to some of the descriptive statistics discussed in chapter six. For example Melamed (1996;37) pointed to the importance of 'mental capacity', and related this to educational attainment, data on which have been gathered in the present study. Allen et al.(1999) noted the impact of career plateauing in relation to age, which may also be reflected in the data for the present sample. A range of writers have drawn attention to gender issues in relation to career success. These included Van Eck Peluchette (1993) who suggested that women were more likely to experience career alienation than men, Thomas and Dunkerley (1999) who suggested that changing work patterns affected women more adversely than men, Simpson and Altman (2000) who suggested that older women were more likely to experience 'glass ceilings' than younger women, and that those who broke through this were individuals of exceptional calibre, and Nabi (2001) who found that women who had high levels of personal support tended to feel more successful in their careers, while men benefitted from the support of an influential peer.

The general aims of the thesis can thus be summarised as investigating an individually-focused perspective on organisationally located 'management' professionals attitudes to the professional commitment, the perceived value of CPD, subjective career success and employability, and the statistical relationships between these variables, as well as identifying exactly what CPD they claimed to engage in. The literature review confirmed that the individual focus of the research was highly appropriate to the contemporary experiences of professional workers, that some of the variables were substantially under-researched (eg. empirical research on CPD or employability), and that this project represented the first occasion that the chosen variables had been considered together. This emphasised both the originality of the research and the potential to make a significant contribution to our understanding of professionals, their attitudes to themselves in relation to their work, and their updating, in a contemporary context. The next section of the dissertation considers the range of methodological issues and the strategies employed in respect of data collection, based on the findings of the literature review.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction: Broad Aims, Research Questions and Hypotheses

The broad aim of the study is to examine relationships among a number of individual attributes and variables, the latter including professional commitment, attitudes to CPD, self perceptions of employability and perceived career success. Specifically, these can be expressed as a series of research questions and hypotheses: due to the exploratory nature of some aspects of the research some issues could not be expressed as precisely as formal hypotheses. Some of these related particularly to the exploratory qualitative study, and included:

RQ1: What are professionals' attitudes to commitment as potentially extending beyond the organisation?

RQ2: How do professionals perceive their relative relationship to other groups and bodies?

RQ3: How committed are professionals to their professional organisation?

RQ4: Whose needs, if anyone's, do professionals perceive as being served by Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

RQ5: Do the sample perceive a need to engage in CPD, and what are their future priorities?

RQ6: How are professionals in organisations making sense of changing work patterns and careers?

RQ7: What are the implications of changing work patterns and careers for these professionals in organisations?

RQ8: What do the sample understand by the term 'employability'?

It can be seen that these research questions fall into three identifiable groups, relating to professions and professional organisations (RQ1-RQ3), to continuing professional development and learning (RQ4-RQ5), and to employability and careers (RQ6-RQ8). These represented the main themes of the research at the qualitative stage.

The exploratory research was successful in addressing the above questions, with the processes described and outcomes analysed in chapter 5. The main aim of the

exploratory stage was to focus the research and to provide direction for the survey stage. The emphasis of the research was identified as the CPD of professional workers, with other significant research variables being professional commitment, the perceived value of CPD, and their self-perceptions of individual employability. The research also sought to identify what CPD the sample actually engaged with. This focus was expressed as two hypotheses, and a series of further research questions, which are listed below.

There was a strong theoretical rationale (described in more detail later in this chapter) for two of the suggested relationships between the main study variables, and these were expressed as formal hypotheses as follows:

H1. That high levels of professional commitment (PC) correlate positively with a positive attitude to continuing professional development (CPDV)

One would expect professionally committed individuals to be more prepared to both fit in with the institute's policies AND to have a greater preparedness to enhance their own status as professionals. Conversely, individuals who are less committed to the profession might be expected to be less positive about the value of CPD.

H2: That a high score in self-perceived subjective career success correlates positively with high self-perceived employability

Here, one would expect individuals who believe themselves to be successful to also regard themselves as highly employable. On the other hand, we would expect people who regard themselves as unsuccessful as perceiving fewer options either inside or outside their organisations, thus poorer individual employability.

The results of the tests of these hypotheses are analysed in chapter 8.

There were a range of other aspects of the research that could not be so neatly expressed as hypotheses, in many cases because of its exploratory nature. This was due to the fact that this was often the first time that some of the variables had been tested empirically, or tested in relation to some of the other study variables. This emphasises the originality of the project, and the potential significance of its theoretical and practical contribution.

The first group of research questions from the survey relates to professional commitment. While this is a well researched field (eg. Aranya and Jacobsen 1975, Aranya et al. 1981, Blau 1985, 1988, Morrow and Goetz 1988, Morrow and Wirth

1989); and similar studies (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) had emphasised organisational commitment, this study explicitly set out to emphasise the attachments beyond the organisation, to the profession. The selection of the scale items is described in section 4.5.3 below. The research aimed to address the following questions:

RQ9: What level of professional commitment does this sample have?

RQ10: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

RQ11: In what ways is professional commitment statistically related to engagement with CPD (what the respondents actually did), subjective career success, and employability?

RQ12: What are the implications of the responses to these research questions for the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development?

These research questions are principally discussed in chapter 7, with some further analysis in chapter 8.

The second group of research questions to be tested by the survey relate to the respondent's perceived value of CPD. The selection and rationale for the survey items is described in section 4.5.4, although these were sourced entirely from the only related piece of research discovered prior to the survey being undertaken: Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998).

What is the rationale for these research questions? The professional institutes promote CPD at least as a means of updating, and often as a necessity to retain one's 'licence to practice', an approach seen as policing by some writers (eg Blyth 2000:53). Cynicism about CPD is widespread, with a Harris Research Report for the CIPD (Harris 1999) suggesting that some members felt that the 'whole thing is simply about producing useless bits of paper'. This echoed the findings of Taylor (1996:388) where the membership of some professions found some schemes patronising, and failed to see the need to engage. Similarly if the scheme is perceived as being owned by the employer, or of greater benefit to employers than individuals, then this will produce a further disincentive to engage. Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:74) reported many concerns from CIPD members in respect of their CPD, in relation to record keeping, the time taken to complete CPD records, and a possible (anecdotally reported) widespread lack of engagement. One could take a cynical view and suggest that the CIPD and other

organisations which are only just beginning to enforce CPD as a mandatory requirement may be deluding themselves as to whether their members actually engage with it or whether they perceive that it makes any difference to them - for example in terms of employability or their career success.

The research questions included:

RQ13: To what extent do these respondents value CPD?

RQ14: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level or job level?

RQ15: What are the implications for the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development? (for example for their policies on CPD)

These research questions are principally discussed in chapter 6, with some further analysis in chapter 8.

After the exploratory fieldwork had been undertaken it was realised that the research neglected to consider how respondents perceived their careers up to that point, as a 'where are we now?' perspective. For this reason subjective career success (SCS) was also included as a study variable. The construction of the scale used in this research is described in section 4.5.7 Although there is a substantial body of literature on the subject, this project is believed to have been the first time that SCS had been studied in relation to a professional sample, so their responses to the SCS scale would be interesting in themselves. Expressed as research questions, these include:

RQ16: What does this sample believe about their subjective career success?

RQ17: Are the differences by gender, age, qualification level, membership level or job level?

In addition, this was believed to be the first time that SCS had been studied in its relationship to some of the other variables, notably the perceived value of CPD, CPDV. Although the theoretical justification for examining the correlation between SCS and employability was strong (and thus expressable as a hypothesis, H2) the correlation between SCS and CPDV was more problematic.

On one hand we might expect individuals to value CPD because they believe it helps

them to become successful or to remain successful. Thus on the other hand individuals who do not care about career success (or are happy with the success they have and do not want any more) are unlikely to perceive a value in CPD! What is potentially problematic here is where individuals believe themselves to be unsuccessful and still value CPD type development in an effort to rectify this, although whether individuals would self report themselves as unsuccessful is quite another matter. This dilemma can be partially resolved if the variable CPDV is regarded as a maintenance or advancement activity for people already in the profession rather than a 'getting to the start line' activity as one might see a degree in certain occupations. As an illustration, the HR profession in the UK does not set qualification-based entry barriers, so for many individuals entry to the profession at a basic level is not a matter of getting a qualification to be allowed entry. Entry to the 'Member' and 'Fellow' grades can only be allowed via the professional examination route. However there may still be problems where an individual has had a successful career that they now perceive as failing - will they believe that they can use CPD to rescue it? For the purposes of this study, CPD is perhaps best considered as an updating strategy rather than a means of effecting major career transitions.

It was believed it would be more appropriate to express a range of possibilities as research questions, which also include CPDE, the respondents' engagement with CPD. The development of the 'CPD Engagement' (CPDE) survey items is described in section 4.5.8 below. Research questions relating to these relationships include:
RQ18: what are the statistical relationships between SCS and CPDV/E?
RQ19: what are the implications for the results of the subjective career success items (and the relationship of the scale to others) for the CIPD?
The results of these research questions are principally discussed in chapter 8.

The scale of individual employability was developed as part of the research project as no suitable measure had been found prior to the fieldwork being undertaken, based on the conceptual diagram shown above as figure 2. The scale development process is described in more detail in section 4.6.6. Because this was an entirely new scale, the sample's responses were considered interesting in themselves, which could be expressed as the following research questions:
RQ20: What is this sample's self-perception of their employability

RQ21: What components of employability are discernible in the respondents' perceptions of their own employability?
RQ22: Are there differences in the main scale and sub-scales by age, gender, qualification level, professional level and job level?
Statistical analyses in response to the above questions are considered in chapter 7, with the identification of the sub-scales in chapter 6.

The psychometric properties of the scale were investigated for a number of reasons. The underpinning theory (eg. Tamkin and Hillage 1998, Rajan 2000), had suggested that employability may be at least a two-dimensional construct: internal employability and external employability. There was also a suggestion that there may be construct redundancy with the subjective career success scale, this suggestion being reinforced by the similarity of the dilemma presented by the apparent impossibility of expressing the relationships of both SCS and employability with CPD as a simple hypothesis. Because the employability scale has proved to be a significant outcome of the research process overall, the following questions are considered in some detail in chapter 6:
RQ23: What are the psychometric properties of the employability scale(s) derived from the samples' perceptions?
RQ24: To what extent is there overlap (redundancy) between the SCS scale and employability?

On the subject of employability, because there was very little underpinning theory or previous research to fall back on, and because of the nature of the construct itself, the relationship between, for example, employability and CPD (both value and engagement) could not be easily predicted. For example, one might expect that individuals who are prepared to engage with CPD do so because they believe it will enhance their employability, both within their organisation and outside, because while they are employable already they perceive a need to maintain this. On the other hand, one might expect that individuals who are less prepared to engage with CPD have no concerns about their employability. They do not see the point in making an effort with CPD because they feel secure: whether that is a realistic or even a wise attitude is a matter for themselves!

As a contrast, some individuals may believe they have low employability, and engage in CPD in an effort to improve this, or individuals who perceive they have low employability may 'give up', resign themselves to a lack of opportunities, and not bother with CPD either. Again this would explain anecdotally low levels of engagement with CPD. Note that here, 'employability' is an individual construct relating to one's ability to keep the job one has or get another job. This is quite distinct from the collective employability of the workforce achieved as a result of certain Human Resource strategies.

Rather as with subjective career success, the problematic nature of these relationships would suggest that a hypothesised relationship based on a particular set of correlations appears too risky. It was determined that it would be more appropriate to proceed with an 'open' research question, more appropriate to the exploratory nature of this research:
RQ25: What are the statistical relationships between employability and CPDV/CPDE?
The results of this research question are analysed in chapter 8.

Finally, because this was believed to be the first time that the construct of employability had been researched with a professional sample:
RQ26: What are the implications of the findings in respect of employability for the CIPD?

The researcher also sought to ascertain what sorts of CPD the sample engaged with, with a view to identifying what were the most popular strategies, to investigate possible variations, and to consider the results as possible recommendations to the professional body. There is some literature on this but from a variety of stakeholders with different interests. One potential outcome of this part of the research is that the results could be fed back to the professional institute with the potential to inform their future CPD strategies. The research has been conducted with the support of the local CIPD branch who have taken a keen interest in the results. At a later stage in the research this descriptive measure was developed into a measure of individual engagement with CPD, which produced some interesting further findings. Expressed as research questions, these are:
RQ27: What are the most commonly reported means of updating for this sample?

RQ28: What are the differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

RQ29: What are the implications of these results for the CIPD?

As the research progressed it became increasingly apparent that to consider relatively simple correlations between variables would be to understate the complexity of the relationships involved. As CPD was the variable of primary interest what was the relationship of the other variables in predicting variance in CPD? The results presented in the early part of chapter 7 suggest the inclusion of age, gender, professional level and organisational position (job level) as control variables, in considering the extent to which engagement with and/or value attributed to CPD explained significant amounts of variance in employability, after also allowing for professional commitment and subjective career success. It was believed that multiple regression analysis would be an appropriate tool in this case, described by De Vaus (2002:343) as:

'a powerful and flexible method of analysing the relationship between a *set* of independent variables and a single dependent variable.'

The theoretical rationale for undertaking multiple hierarchical regression is discussed in section 4.7.3 below. Research questions to examine the impact of a range of other variables on the two main variables of interest (CPD and employability) are:

RQ30: Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of the value attributed to CPD?

RQ31: Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of self perceived total employability?

These research questions are discussed and analysed further in chapter 8.

The research strategy was informed by a literature review which made a number of significant contributions, these being:

- The identification of contextual factors relating to the changing nature of work and careers, career success and the identification of appropriate measures of subjective success
- a focus on commitment that was limited to professional commitment and without pulling the research into the domain of general commitment theory, believed to be

inappropriate due to its multi-faceted and all-embracing nature, a desire to emphasise the 'beyond-organisation' attributes of professional work and professional networking, and a desire to de-emphasise organisational attachment

- a definition of professionals for the purposes of the present study and criteria for determining who can be included and who can not
- an identification of key issues relating to CPD in the workplace, why professionals engage in it, and what affects their ability to benefit from it
- a concept of employability based on internal and external labour market factors impacting on individuals and occupations, with the potential for development of this concept into a measure of employability.

To summarise, this is essentially a *practical* piece of research in the sense that it deals with professional workers attitudes to their work, their careers, their profession and their updating, and what they actually do in respect of the latter. The research has the potential to make a *theoretical* contribution in respect of a deeper understanding of under-researched areas, and a completely original contribution in respect of individual employability. Jankowicz (1994:82) describes the inferential process of combining assertion (here, as research questions) and data to 'understand and explain particular events'. This project employs the hypothetico-deductive method to add to theoretical understanding in the field, most significantly in relation to individual attitudes to CPD, relationships with other variables, and individual employability. However as Philips and Pugh (2000:180 suggest, while the hypothetico-deductive method describes a logical approach to research, it does not describe the psychological behaviour that enables it. In this instance, some of the research outcomes were somewhat unexpected, this reflecting the relatively exploratory nature of the research.

Building on this sound theoretical base, in the remainder of the chapter a number of key methodological considerations are addressed, including the rationale for the use of cross sectional survey methodology, the validity of self-report methodology, the size of the sample and power considerations. Then the design of the survey instrument is considered, including a review of the development of the question items relating to each of the variables. Issues relating to survey implementation are addressed, including access and privacy issues in relation to the sample. Finally the chapter describes and justifies

the data analysis methods employed, including the statistics produced, the testing of hypotheses and correlation analyses, and the use of multiple hierarchical regression.

4.2 The Exploratory Qualitative Research

Because some of the research variables had relatively poor existing empirical literature, a very comprehensive literature review was undertaken in the hope of finding existing well validated measures of for example, attitudes to CPD, employability and career success. This continued right up until the writing-up stage of the project. Early work also included a qualitative study of twenty professionals at a variety of levels from a range of professional organisations, although all were contained broadly within the business management field. The qualitative strategies were utilised because, as Thomas and Dunkerley (1999:160) suggested, the research at that early stage aimed to:
'- provide rich empirical data - and to address the theoretical limitations in the literature.'

One of the weaknesses of the chosen fields of study is that much of the literature is speculative in nature and thus not that helpful in respect of informing a research methodology. The qualitative research aimed to find out what issues could be explored later in a quantitative survey, to refine the theoretical issues identified in the literature review, and to generate themes for further exploration. The specific research questions to be addressed by the qualitative research are listed above. As Silverman (2000:100) suggested, the conclusions reached allowed the researcher to simplify and focus the research design at the next stage.

Structured interviews were undertaken with twenty professionals drawn from a range of professional associations, meeting the criteria for inclusion identified in the literature review. The interviews were tape recorded with the participant's permission and transcripts made of the recordings. As Nachmias and Nachmias (1981:231) identified, such an interview can have a number of key characteristics such as that they take place with respondents known to have been involved in a particular experience (in this case meeting the criteria of professional membership and employment identified above). Second, the interview dialogue refers to situations that have been analysed prior to the interview (eg. CPD). Third, the interview proceeds on the basis of a guide specifying

topics related to the research aims. Fourth, the interview is focused on the subjective experiences regarding the situations under study. The anticipated outcome was, as Sekaran (2000:226) suggested, a 'tentative theory of the factors influencing the problem'.

As this was exploratory research respondents were selected from a convenient sample of professionals meeting the research criteria identified in the literature review. This was believed to be acceptable as according to Sekaran (2000:297):

' - if the purpose of the study is merely to explore and understand phenomena, a convenience sample is almost always used.'

Given the sample size (twenty) it was accepted that the generalisability of the results would be limited (Sekaran 2000:297), but again this was believed to be acceptable at this exploratory stage of the research. Respondents were employed in a range of organisations and members of a variety of professional associations. Gender was not identified as a key feature of the research initially, but there was an imbalance towards women in the qualitative research. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes, and followed a broadly standard script (see Appendix 3), with some prompting by the interviewer where respondents wandered off the point or lost the focus of the question. As Oppenheim (1992:52) suggested, if an interview proved to be particularly rich on one topic then to some extent the researcher allowed this to 'flow with the tide', but within reason. Interviews were recorded with the participant's permission and transcribed later. The questions were determined by the researcher, broadly informed by the literature review that had been undertaken up to that point, emphasising the following:

- Section 1: 'About yourself': at the exploratory stage of the research the researcher did not have established links with any one professional organisation. The aim at this stage was to solicit perceptions from a variety of professional areas to try to identify what some of the issues were. It was believed that level of membership, age, gender, type of organisation, and qualification level might influence some of the other variables but these were areas needing further investigation
- Section 2: 'Work commitment': The 'commitment' aspects of the research were significantly revised after the qualitative research, with a greater focus on the individual and the profession (ie.beyond the organisation) as opposed to the individual within their organisation. This was seen as being more relevant to the contemporary career concept as well as a more original and worthwhile research

contribution. This was the reason for the eventual focus on the affective aspects of professional commitment, rather than work or organisational commitment.

- Section 3 'As a professional person': At the time the qualitative research was undertaken the researcher was interested in how the respondents perceived themselves as professionals, what it meant to be a professional, and on professionals in organisations. The outcomes of this section of the research were to inform later work on the perceived employability of professionals in organisations and the employability of different professions in internal and external labour markets. As many of the respondents were from what has been called in the literature 'newly professionalised occupations' it was hoped that their levels of self-confidence and self-esteem as professionals could also be explored, both within their organisations and in relation to other (perhaps more established?) professionals.
- Section 4: 'Your professional organisation': The aim of this section of the interview was to explore the relationship of the individual professional person to their professional association, to establish what their level of engagement was with the organisation, and the extent to which professional networking was important.
- Section 5: 'Professional Learning': This section of the interviews aimed to explore exactly what CPD individuals engaged in, how they aimed to keep themselves up to date, and what was their motivation for doing so. This section also included some early references to the concept of employability, which were to inform later design of the survey instrument.

From the interviews, data were analysed using content analysis (Jankowicz 2000:237), whereby themes were extracted from the recordings and transcripts, categorised, and key points identified. As will be seen in chapter 5, there were some useful findings, which aided conceptual development and enhanced the researcher's understanding of the professional mindset - especially for those in newly professionalised occupations. The interviews had also drawn in professionals from a range of associations and occupational areas.

4.3 The Survey Sample

4.3.1 The participants - defined.

The author has been involved in professional organisations and professional education throughout his career. The literature review had confirmed the author's interest in a sample who could be identified as (primarily) organisationally-located professionals or members of the management-related professions (Watkins 1992, Ackroyd 1996) as this was where a great deal of existing research on Continuing Professional Development and the other variables had been undertaken. The early qualitative work had utilised a sample drawn from a wide range of professional organisations, with some possible intent at a later date to conduct a survey across a range of professional organisations for comparative purposes. However to extend the research into inter-professional comparisons was believed to be beyond the scope of the present study.

For practical and theoretical reasons a decision was made at this point to focus on just one professional group - the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development - and on a quantitative methodology. At a practical level the author had close links with the CIPD, and they were more than willing to facilitate the research. An acceptable sample could be accessed within the time frame of the PhD., and the CIPD membership database was ideal for conducting survey research. Just one professional organisation was utilised because to undertake a comparative study would add an extra level of complexity to the project, already complex enough, although inter-professional comparisons may well be a fruitful avenue for later extension of the research.

At a theoretical level, and arising from the literature review, The CIPD appeared to fit the definition of professionals derived in chapter 2 including: identification as a professional (Kerr and Von Glinow 1977, Morrow and Goetz 1988, Mirvis and Hall 1994), professional values (Hall 1968), such as in codes of practice, and the ability to exercise professional discretion at work. Rather than see these as absolute requirements , they are best seen as on a series of continua (Elliot 1972, Kerrr and Von Glinow 1977), and as an example the CIPD do not truly have the ability to exercise occupational closure (Leveson 1996, Ackroyd 1996, Reed 1996), although in practice a certain level

of professional membership would be a pre-requisite for individuals seeking senior appointments in most organisations. As an organisation acknowledged as one of the 'leaders in the field' of CPD (Crofts 2000), one might reasonably expect the CIPD to promote an effective model of CPD. Finally, there was a small, but more than that discovered for any other professional organisation, body of empirical literature (eg. Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Harris 2000) that would prove to be invaluable in informing the design of the survey instrument.

4.3.2 The participants - identified

Thanks to the co-operation of the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch of the CIPD the researcher was able to use their membership database as the basis for a postal survey. The sample therefore consisted of the 973 members of the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development who had either full member status following completion of the full diet of the profession's qualifications plus a qualifying period at an appropriate experiential level (corporate membership), with the designation MCIPD; or members at the higher level of Fellow (FCIPD) gained after a further qualifying period and evidence of an appropriate level of experience. As the focus of the study was on continuing professional development (ongoing development to keep up to date with the implication of some passage of time) it was believed that studying the attributes and attitudes of members implicitly at a later career stage would throw up more issues relating to, for example, were members actually keeping themselves up to date where their qualification or training may have been some considerable time ago? What are the relationships between for example career success, employability and their engagement with CPD members who have a high professional status (Fellows) - and Members? The highest membership category of all - Companion - was excluded from the survey as there were too few of these in the region to make up a meaningful sample for comparative purposes.

4.4 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

4.4.1 The use of cross sectional survey methodology

Previous research into the elements of the present study (eg. on CPD, Jones and Fear 1993, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998; or on career success Gattiker and Larwood 1986, Greenhaus et al 1990, Nabi 2000 and 2001; or on employability eg. Van der Heijden 2002), had typically employed cross-sectional survey methodology to gather large quantities of data for subsequent multivariate analysis. This enabled a large population to be accessed at a given point in time with relative ease. Jankowicz suggested (2000:222): 'You carry out a survey in order to establish people's views of what they think, believe or feel, in order to discover these views for their own sake, or to support an argument that you're presenting - '

The main problem with the cross-sectional survey method is that it only allows a perspective at a fixed point in time which limits our ability to make inferences about causal relationships. Sekaran (2000:141) emphasised the importance of distinguishing between causal and correlational studies, and the need to conduct a longitudinal study if the research seeks to establish causality. The principal reason why longitudinal research was not undertaken here was due to time constraints, often a characteristic of Doctoral study.

4.4.2 The validity of self report methodology: Response Integrity

The survey employed self-report methodology, and it must be acknowledged that this can potentially be problematic, especially given the nature of the subject matter under discussion. For example, would respondents be prepared to honestly self-report if their careers were in their view less than successful, or if they privately believed their employability was low? Goffin and Gellatly (2001:439) in their research on organisational commitment had suggested that 'simple defensiveness' might cause respondents to inflate their ratings. They also suggested that 'moderated defensiveness' may have the effect of producing variable responses, and was attributable to individual differences due to personality traits, or neurotiscism. In the present study these factors

are recognised as a potential limitation to reliability and validity, and it is hoped that the assurances of confidentiality given on the questionnaire and covering letter would encourage respondent honesty. Within the scope of this study it was not possible to test for personality factors in relation to the research variables, and this may be an area for extension at a later date.

A further concern is if respondents do not understand a given item and then answer it based on this misunderstanding, and the erroneous answer then goes undetected entering the data set and causing bias. This concern was addressed by pilot-testing the questionnaire, as described below. A further concern was the risk that respondents might not take the questionnaire seriously, and simply tick answers either at random, or in patterns (1,2,3,1,2,3,) or the same item throughout (4,4,4,4,)? All of these factors may lead to unverifiable response biases. Some encouragement can be gained from the recent study by Goffin and Gellatly (2001:437 et seq.) which suggested that self -report measures are affected 'mainly by the observations or experiences of the self-reported *rather than by systematic bias relating to defensive responding.*'. *This means, essentially,* that what one is actually measuring is likely to be the true attitudes and values rather than faked responses which reflect the respondent's intention to in some way conceal their true values for whatever reason. Finally, it is important to achieve a balance in the length of the questionnaire between the inclusion of items that are seen as essential, and making the questionnaire so long that it might deter some respondents. This latter concern was one reason for the selective use of some of the Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:70) survey items.

4.4.3: Why use a postal survey in this context?

Following the exploratory qualitative research it was decided that survey methodology would best meet the stated research aims and hypotheses, and that this would best provide the large scale data necessary for subsequent data analysis within the available time frame. In addition, the early research had afforded the opportunity to develop a more refined focus and the questionnaire would be:

'- an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest.'

(Sekaran 2000:232)

Sekaran suggested that postal questionnaires have advantages including that: 'a wide geographical area can be covered' (2000:234), in this case facilitated by the researcher being granted the use of the CIPD's mailing lists for the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch in the form of pre-printed labels.

4.4.4 Sample size and power considerations

To some extent the sample were defined by their existence as a group within a particular geographical area. However, concern as to whether this sample size (of 234 Members and Fellows) would be sufficient for multivariate analysis led the author to consider power analysis as a means of determining the appropriateness of this sample size. Power analysis takes two factors into account: the estimated effect size and the number of predictor variables. In the present study, the effect sizes (R^2) were, in reality, expected to be medium at best. Nabi (1998:94), conducting research in a similar field, followed a formula suggested by Green (1991:508), which accounts for both effect size and the number of predictor variables. The formula is:

$$N \geq (8/f^2) + (m-1)$$

where:

- N = the sample size
- f^2 = the lowest anticipated effect size squared (ie, R^2)
- m = the maximum number of predictor variables under consideration

Nabi suggested (page 95) that above f^2, by being only an approximate indication of the expected relationship, represents a weakness within the formula. Clearly while the expected relationships are informed by the available literature, *none* of the literature surveyed in relation to CPD mentioned power analysis at all, and Nabi's study (of career

success), *assumed* a 'small to medium' effect size (page 95). While one has to accept that these approximations are not ideal, nonetheless as Nabi suggested it is perhaps better than no consideration of sample size at all. Discounting the variable 'andragogy' as later happened had little impact on the formula and only reduced the preferred sample size by one.

Green (1991:508) recommended that f^2 should be .01, for small expected effect sizes, .15 for medium expected effect sizes, and .35 for large expected effect sizes. Despite the extent to which the CIPD had talked-up the importance of CPD amongst its membership, the relationship to the other variables in the present study was not expected to be more than moderate and accordingly a fairly modest value of .05 was utilised for f^2. The use of this effect size means, as Nabi (1998:95) suggested, 'that one could reasonably expect to find a significant finding if all the predictor variables of concern contributed to at least 5% of the variance in the perceived value of CPD'. With four predictor variables under consideration (PC, AND, EMP, CS), the following preferred sample size was calculated:

$$N \geq (8/.05) + (4-1) = 160 + 3 = 163$$

Disaggregation by further subgroups was not a major feature of the correlational analysis (and the differences by gender, level, organisational position or age would not have been so very statistically significant anyway: see chapters six and eight), unlike Nabi's research where (page 96) he accounted for the further subdivision by gender and occupational group. Here, these divisions were restricted to the descriptive statistics, which are reported in chapter 7. Given the above formula, if a sample size greater than or equal to 163 could be achieved this should ensure enough statistical power for multivariate analysis to identify the expected effect size.

A much simpler means of calculating the sample size derived from a given population size was suggested by Krejce and Morgan (1970:607). They provided a simple table, which suggested that for a population of 1000 a sample of 278 should be aimed for. In the present study the response rate was 24.05% overall, with the Derby respondents (115/ 421: 27.32%) scoring better than the Nottingham respondents (119/552: 21.56%). On this rough estimate this is perhaps less than ideal certainly in the latter group, and

should be recognised as a potentially limiting factor in the research. However given the fact that Krejce and Morgan's measure is at best described as a *rough* estimate one would expect it to err heavily on the side of caution. As Green suggested (1991:509): 'Researchers who use traditional rules-of-thumb are likely to design studies that have insufficient power because of too few subjects or excessive power because of too many subjects'.

The researcher's caution was well founded in this case. Sekaran's (2000:234) suggested disadvantages of a postal survey (see above): a likely low response rate, and the inability of respondents to seek clarification, also applied in the present study. In the first case, the response rate of 24% was lower than had been hoped for, given the extent to which the CIPD talks-up the importance of CPD in communications to members. They were (intuitively) anticipated to share this sense of priority. As Jankowicz (2000:287) suggested, the research was trying to: ' - explore issues about which - respondents have a sense of ownership - '.

4.4.5 Control variables

The study aimed to examine the complex relationships among individual attributes such as individual attitudes (eg. to CPD and professional commitment) and individual beliefs relating to employability and career success. The relevance of the need to identify and control for the influence of variables that could potentially threaten the validity of the results or lead to inaccurate conclusions was considered. These are defined by Jankowicz (2000:348) as:

'The variables which would get in the way of a causal explanation of the relationship between the dependant and the independent variables, and whose effects you try to eliminate.'

It must be emphasised that this was a study testing correlation (cross sectionally) rather than causality (longitudinally). In this study, four control variables (gender, membership level, qualification level (as in graduates and non-graduates), and their level in that organisation) were considered. The variables were included not just for control purposes but also because some of the descriptive literature (eg. Harris 2000) had

suggested that they might reveal interesting results in themselves. The reasons for their selection (and the non-selection of others), are outlined below.

In respect of gender, the literature review had suggested that this may significantly impact on a number of the other variables, especially career success (Van Eck Peluchette 1993, Thomas and Dunkerly 1999, Simpson and Altman 2000, Nabi 2001), the specific impacts being discussed in section 3.3.2 above. The limited number of empirical studies in respect of CPD had incorporated a consideration of membership level as a variable (Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998), but this was controlled for in the present study to more accurately evaluate the nature of the correlational relationships. Both gender and membership level were considered key components of the exploratory analyses reported in chapter six. As this section also suggested that there may be effects due to qualification level (and a further interaction effect with gender), the graduate/non-graduate division was incorporated as a further control variable. A substantial number of respondents self-reported as operating at strategic level, and this was controlled for in the results. Finally, while the data matched other studies (eg. Sadler Smith and Badger 1998, Harris Research 2000) in respect of the response rates for public/private sector respondents, it was suggested that this division should be controlled for in the correlational analysis. However organisation type was later dropped as a control variable in this study as the descriptive analysis revealed a high level of missing or ambiguous data due to a lack of clarity in response choices for respondents who were either self-employed or working in the not for profit sector. This is an aspect of the study that has potential for future development. It should be noted that none of the studies which bear the closest comparison to parts of the present research project , and none of which integrate the all elements of the research in that way that has been done here, appear to have used control variables at all (Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler Smith and Badger 1998, and Van der Heijden 2002).

4.5 SURVEY DEVELOPMENT

4.5.1 Introduction

The survey instrument consisted of seven sections which were:

- Respondent information, comprising basic demographic, organisation and job role related information
- affective professional commitment
- attitudes to the value of CPD
- self perceptions of andragogy
- self perceived employability
- self perception of subjective career success
- a descriptive measure of what kinds of CPD individuals engaged in and to what extent

Care was taken with the sequencing of questions following guidance given in Sekaran (2000:240), using the funnel approach where questions move from the general to the specific. This influenced the broad ordering of topics as well as the ordering of some of the scales notably career success. On ordering, one potential area of concern was the level of similarity between adjacent question items on the employability scale, in the sense that respondents might not perceive the sometimes fairly subtle differences between the items. One potential solution could have been to random-order the questions. On the ordering of questions, Sekaran suggests that (2000:240):

' - (while) randomly placing the questions in the questionnaire would reduce any systematic biases in the response, it is very rarely done because of subsequent confusion while categorising, coding and analyzing the responses.'

In the pilot study some of the employability items were randomised but when scoring was attempted precisely the problems that Sekaran had identified were encountered and so for the actual survey these items were re-ordered back to the form identified on the 4 x 4 matrix. The questionnaire was therefore redesigned following the pilot study as data entry had proved to be difficult due to the randomised questions, and also that the questionnaire item numbers did not correspond to the SPSS code book developed by the researcher. A conscious effort was made to avoid unduly long questions, although some

of the employability items are just about on acceptable limits in this respect. Sekaran (2000:239) suggests that: 'as a general rule of thumb, questions should not exceed 20 words in length.'

The following sections provide a rationale for the question items used in the survey, beginning with the descriptive respondent information, continuing with a rationale for the choice of questions for each of the variables, and concluding with the descriptive listing of items relating to CPD engagement. An example of the final version of the questionnaire can be found in appendix 3.

4.5.2 Respondent Information

Item 1 on the questionnaire was of course the SPSS ID number. The location of personal information at the beginning or end of the questionnaire is identified as a matter of choice for the researcher. Its location at the beginning may lead to a 'psychological identification' with the questionnaire (Sekaran 2000:241), and helps to describe the sample characteristics when writing up. For the **respondent information** - basic demographics (items 2,3), professional level and time served (items 4, 5,6, 10), qualification type, level and recency (items 7,8), employment status (11) and organisational type and job role level (12,13) were included as the first page of the questionnaire, and rated by nominal scales. The format for the presentation of this information was drawn from a number of sources including the CIPD's Harris Research Reports (1999,2000). Analysis by age or gender, qualification level or type of organisation, and decision making level had featured in some previous studies (eg. Sadler Smith and Badger 1998) and was gathered for further analysis or control purposes. This especially proved to be useful in the 'descriptive statistics' section of the present study. For example, the Sadler-Smith and Badger study had found (page 71) that newer members had accorded CPD a higher priority, whereas one might have expected longer standing members to have more concerns about their updating. Commitment to updating was lowest among older males. Sadler-Smith and Badger also found no significant differences in results according to size of respondent's organisation, or by job level.

Qualification level was believed to be potentially significant: while a degree is by no means a pre-requisite for entry into the profession selected, it is now not uncommon for members to be graduates or to study to graduate level during the course of their careers. Similarly, the early qualitative fieldwork yielded a surprising finding of potentially high levels of graduate membership of even the newly professionalised occupations, such as the Association of University Administrators. This reflects trends identified by Jackson (1996) of graduate encroachment into traditionally non-graduate occupations. This may impact on their perceptions of career success due to the absence of the so-called 'fast track' career, and also employability as influenced by the individual's employability assets. Although the data collected were in eight categories, this was simplified to two (graduates/non graduates) for control purposes.

The following section relates to the affective sections of the questionnaire, all of which were scored on a five point interval scale from strongly disagree (coded as 1 in SPSS), through disagree (2), neither agree nor disagree (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5) for items 14-60 inclusive. Missing items between 14 and 94 were coded 9. As Pallant (2001:8) suggested, ease of coding into SPSS was a key consideration at this stage.

4.5.3 Professional Commitment

Professional commitment (PC) was measured using eight of the nine items from the 'professional' version of the nine affective organisational commitment items identified by Tsui et al (1997) as relating to affective commitment or emotional attachment, to the organisation or as here to the profession. The professional commitment scale was converted by simply substituting the word 'profession' for 'organisation'. One item 'I talk up this profession to my friends as a great profession to be associated with' was discarded, as it was intuitively felt to be inappropriately worded for use with the sample identified, and in any case seemed to replicate 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of this profession'. One extra item was included, this being the reverse scored 'often I find it difficult to agree with this profession's policies on important matters relating to its members'. In addition, as Sekaran (2000:237) suggested, the respondents should be:
' - shaken out of any likely tendency to mechanically respond to one end of the scale.'

At this stage in the research it is believed that a measure of affective professional commitment or emotional attachment is sufficient for our attention in this respect - as a uni-dimensional approach without the burden of additional question items from the full fifteen item version of the questionnaire. This is also felt to be consistent with the affective nature of items 14-60 generally. Tsui et al. reported an alpha coefficient of .95 for their affective OC scale. Here, with 234 cases, and slight modifications, an alpha coefficient of .80 can be reported. While professional commitment is conventionally measured on a seven-point scale, in the present study there is no intention to make any comparison with any other commitment studies. The measure of PC employed here is for use within this body of research only. A five-point scale was used with this consideration in mind to give an appearance of greater overall integrity and consistency to the survey instrument.

4.5.4 The Value of CPD

The respondent's attitude to the value of **Continuing Professional Development (CPDV)** was measured using selected items from Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69). One section of their CPD survey was utilised, this being the one relating to the value of CPD: namely nine questions on the acceptance of the value of undertaking CPD in relation to 'anticipated outcomes' such as employability, job performance, career prospects. Sadler-Smith and Badger reported an alpha coeficient of 0.88 for this subscale in their research, compared to 0.93 for the same scale in the present study, but here with a narrower sample in terms of membership level. The items relating to employer attitudes to CPD, commitment to professional development and CPD targets were felt to be too repetitive of other items and were omitted.

4.5.5 Andragogy

From Maguire and Fuller (1997:180), items to test **'andragogy'** - the extent to which adults are ready to learn and are self directed learners, were sought, in relation to socio-economic, situational and dispositional factors. As no ready to use well validated scale

existed, the author developed six items himself two of which match with each of Maguire and Fuller's three dimensions of andragogy, as below:

- Socio-Economic: relating to one's personal circumstances or family background
  I could not engage in CPD if there was a cost which I had to pay myself
  It is very rare for anyone in my family to reach my level of professional achievement
- Situational: relating to one's work or home environment
  My employer gives me financial support and/or time off to support my CPD
  My personal and family commitments limit my ability to engage in CPD
- Dispositional: relating to one's motivation to engage in CPD and attitude towards CPD
  I am happy to engage in CPD on a voluntary basis
  I really feel that there are benefits to be gained from CPD

These six questions are perhaps best thought of as three sub-scales rather than one 'tight' scale, and this was confimed by a very poor alpha coefficient of .22 for the six items which could not be improved by removing any one of the pairs from the results. Because the internal consistency reliability for this scale was so poor the results were excluded from the subsequent analyses. Nonetheless it is still believed that some measure of an individual's orientation to learn is required in this field. At the time the survey was designed the author was unaware of the work of Sadler-Smith et al (2000), otherwise a consideration of individual cognitive style may have been introduced at this stage, although to some extent preferred learning methods are covered by the 'CPD engagement' items described below.

4.5.6 Employability

As no appropriate pre-designed and tested measure for employability could be found, one has been developed here. This is based on the 'internal and external influences' diagram included as figure two, which in turn had been informed by the work of Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin (1999), Tamkin and Hillage (1999), Klutmans and Ott (1999), Rajan (2000) and Lane et al (2000), among others. Hillage and Pollard (1998) had suggested that employability was measurable in a number of ways:

- 'Input measures' such as vocational qualifications, job search skills or career management training: to some extent this has been addressed in the first section of the questionnaire
- Second 'perception measures' - the employee's view of their own 'employability'. Hillage and Pollard included employer perceptions in this category, but the present project focuses on employee perceptions.
- Third 'outcome measures' - the ability of individuals to get the jobs they want.

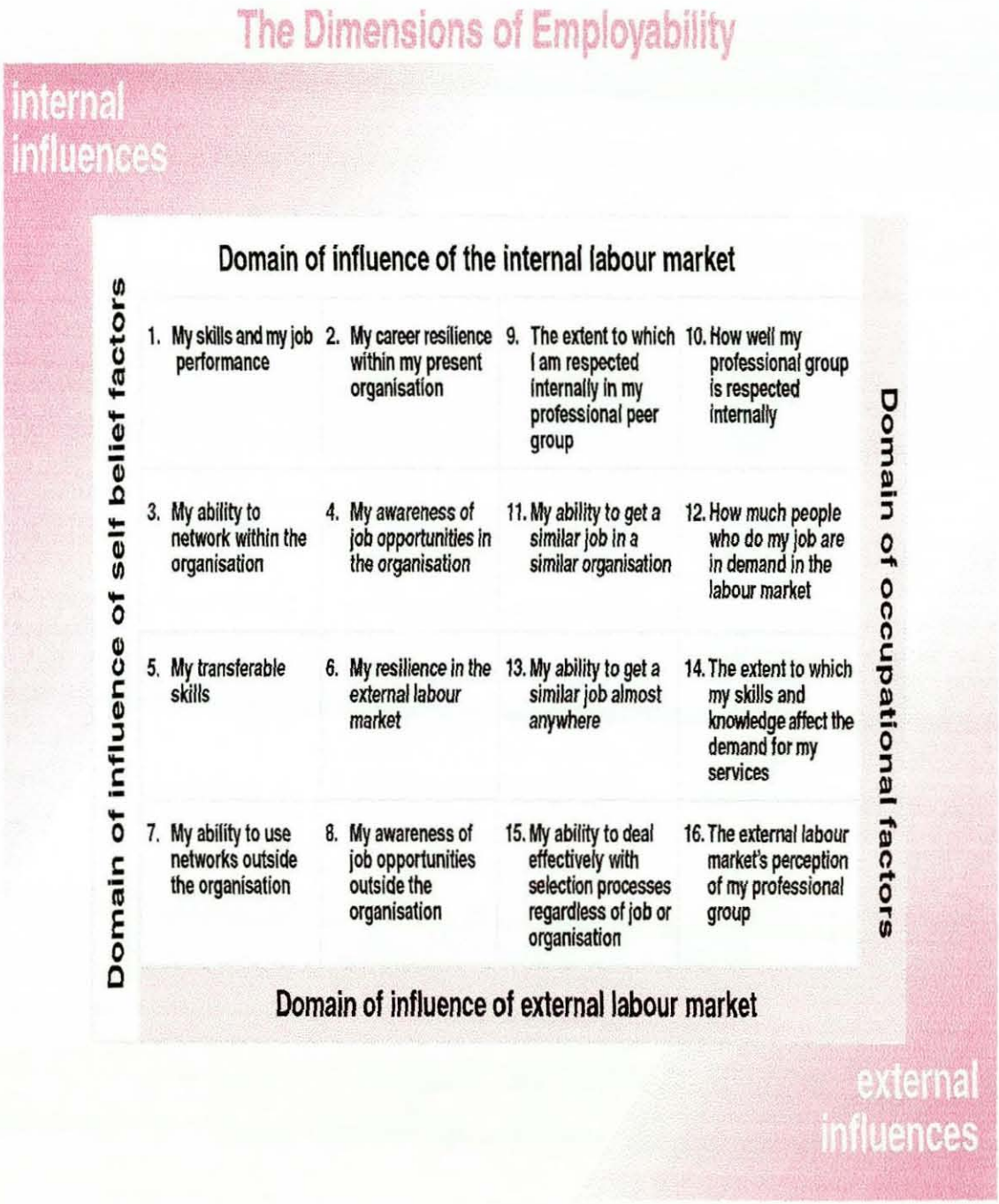
The challenge was to account for these factors, to produce a scale that would incorporate inputs, and outcomes, but based on perceptions as this is the nature of the research - from the point of view of the professionals themselves. The diagram in figure two (also included as appendix one) seeks to account for a number of dimensions, which are the 'domains' on each of the four sides of the diagram:

- The individual - all individuals are different and they vary in terms of their contribution and how they are perceived in organisations. This may be influenced by their interpersonal skills, their networking capability, how hard they work, the esteem they are accorded by others. The scale does not explicitly measure self-perceived personal efficacy, and this may well be a point for development in the future. Note that all of these are factors that relate primarily to the person - not the occupation. Two further dimensions account for internal (to the organisation) and external (ie. the external labour market factors:

- The internal labour market. Most members of the sample included in the survey were employed in organisations, although a small number were independent consultants, self employed or freelance workers. For those employed in organisations perceptions of their promotability or prospects within their occupational group may be significant, but this may in turn be influenced by how that group is perceived externally, as explained below.

- The external labour market. Having considered the position of the individual within the organisation, there remains a need to account for the individual's perception of their own survival skills, as in:

Figure 4: The Dimensions of Employability



'If I had to do something different because the work I do now declined in significance or availability, how would I get on? If I had to give up my present career could I still be as successful or more successful in another occupation?'. Thus we need to consider how the individual might fare in the external labour market either should a forced-choice be made or should they wish to change direction. Of course individual factors are not the only influence here, and we need to account for the 'value' or 'worth' accorded to the occupation too, as below.

- The occupation. Different occupations are valued differently, both within an organisation's internal labour market, and in society as a whole. For example at an organisational level, the preliminary fieldwork revealed perceived status differences between different groups of lecturing staff in Universities even though their job titles or grading may be the same. The differences may be subtle, but may often be related to external perceptions of status: such as between lawyers and personnel specialists, or between clinicians and non-clinicians in NHS Trusts, even though pay differences may be negligible. In addition, the external influences need to be accounted for: lawyers are often paid more than personnel specialists, and the social perception of the 'traditional professions' accords them higher status.

The lack of a satisfactory ready-to use scale, but a strong desire to measure employability based on the above conceptualisation, led the author to develop a 16-item scale based systematically on the four dimensions. The evolution of this conceptualisation of employability is described below. The original 2 x 2 matrix shown in figure 2 evolved into the more detailed (4 x 4) version in figure 3, which in turn became the sixteen items of the individual employability scale. The alpha coefficient for this scale from 234 respondents was 0.88 which is regarded as more than satisfactory for an untested measure. To summarise: employability, for the purposes of this research, is defined as a multi-faceted construct that is based on an individual's perceptions of the value accorded to themselves and their occupation in internal and external labour markets. However the high scale alpha does seem to indicate that so far as these respondents were concerned, employability may not be a multi-faceted construct. Chapter 6 includes a discussion on the factor composition of the employability scale, and its relationship to subjective career success in this study.

The following is a brief consideration of some factors related to the scale design, followed by a consideration of the scale items and a rationale for their use. Clearly starting from scratch with scale design carries certain risks. One problem with the scale design employed is that, as Oppenheim (1992:180) suggested: 'One should try to avoid a stilted, rational approach in writing attitude statements'. He suggested an attempt should be made to introduce a 'freshness', which was difficult given the systematic way in which the scale was developed. Considerable time was spent trying to make the question wording as user-friendly as possible, while at the same time trying to avoid making the purpose of the questionnaire too obvious (Oppenheim 1992:180). At the survey design stage it was believed that all sixteen items (see below) were needed to cover the aspects of employability being surveyed and it was not known whether the items would load on a single factor, or two, or more.

Based on the above four-dimensional conceptualisation, a scale was systematically developed to reflect progressively greater or lesser influences of the four 'domains of influence'. This is represented by the location of the sixteen small squares in the diagram in figure 3. The location of the small numbered square in the overall diagram reflects the influence on that item of the four 'domains of influence' on the outside edges of the diagram, and the numbering and ordering of the scale items matches the numbering of the sixteen small squares in appendix two. The scale, consistent with the other scales used in the survey, represents the individual's self-perception of their own standing in respect of each item, and is thus a subjective scale, in the same way that subjective career success represents an individuals self evaluation of their achievement in 'objective success' measures. Thus:

Item 1: 'I have good prospects in this organisation because my employer values my personal contribution' reflects totally the influence of the domain of personal attributes (skills and job experience) in the internal labour market, and not at all occupational factors (eg. working in Personnel) or the state of the external labour market (generally, or how it values personnel managers)

Item 2: 'Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident I would be retained' reflects a little more emphasis on the internal labour market than personal

attributes, but does not refer to the external labour market at all. It is more to do with individual self perceived job resilience or career resilience within their present organisation.

Item 3: ' My personal networks in this organisation help me in my career' relate almost totally to personal attributes and a facility for internal networking.

Item 4: ' I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now' reflects an individual's ability to undertake internal job seeking and being aware of internal opportunities, without a strong emphasis on the same occupation or the external labour market

Item: 5: 'The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation' relates to personal attributes and transferable skills but now acknowledging the presence of the external labour market. However we would have expected professionals to be unlikely to strongly agree with this item if they see themselves as strongly committed to personnel or Human Resources as a career (an erroneous assumption - this item actually had the highest overall mean score for the sub-scale). On the other hand, HR professionals are probably more likely to actually understand what transferable skills are than many other occupational groups.

Item 6: 'I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere' relates a little less to individual factors but draws in retraining and the opportunities afforded by the external labour market. This has a lesser relationship with the internal labour market, and also with the occupational factors. Again we might have expected professionals to be reluctant to 'strongly agree' with this item if their professional commitment is high, but they would strongly agree if they believed they had strong resilience in the external labour market.

Item 7: 'I can use my professional networks and business contacts to develop my career' is strongly located in the domains of personal attributes and the external labour market. One might reasonably expect professionals to have strong external networks if for example they have a strong attachment to the local branch organisation.

Item 8: 'I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now' is similar to item 4 but note the slightly stronger emphasis on the external labour market.

Item 9: 'Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation' has a strong focus on the internal labour market, with the individual and the occupation as second-order influences. To what extent is the individual respected internally in their professional peer group? In practice some respondents found this item difficult adding margin notes to the effect that, for example '- there is only me!'.

Item 10; 'People who do the same job as me who work in this organisation are valued highly' appears to be similar to item 9 but is slightly different. It places the strongest emphasis on the occupational factors and the internal labour market, with only a slight link to the individual.

Item 11: 'If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation' is most strongly influenced by the occupation, and to a lesser extent by the organisation and the individual/or the external labour market respectively. It relates to the individual's ability to change organisation to a similar job (analogous say to the author being a Senior Lecturer in HRM but at another 'new university') should a forced-choice (eg. redundancy) be made.

Item 12: 'People who do a job like mine in organisations similar to the one I presently work in are really in demand by other organisations' is most strongly influenced by the occupational factors, second by the similarity of the organisation, third by the external labour market, and least of all by the similarity (say of the person specification for an externally advertised job) to the individual's attributes.

Item 13: 'I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organisation' is most strongly influenced by occupational factors and the external labour market, and least by organisational factors (hence 'almost any organisation'), and individual factors. Clearly there needs to be some individual influence otherwise the scale would have no reference

back to the person completing it. This was to prove to be the item with the lowest mean score overall, which perhaps should be expected as the statement 'almost any organisation' is quite a sweeping generalisation (would a health service HR professional feel confident going into the manufacturing sector for example - or vice versa) and this item could perhaps be revised should further development of the scale take place.

Item 14; 'Anyone with my levels of skill and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience will be highly sought after by employers' reflects a strong orientation towards the external labour market but with the focus strongly on the demand for one's professional services (eg. as an HR specialist in performance management in the retail sector) and hardly at all one's individual attributes (MBA, FCIPD, job level, experience etc.).

Item 15; 'I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant' represents absolute self-confidence of the individual in their ability to function effectively in the external labour market on their own merits and to deal with selection processes in the 'out-there' world.

Item 16: Finally: 'people with my kind of job related experience are very highly valued in their organisation and outside whatever sort of organisation they have previously worked in', represents a self confident approach to the external labour market, influenced strongly by one's professional background, but irrespective of what sort of organisational experience one has acquired or one's individual attributes. It has a stronger 'job' focus than item 15. How well is the Human Resources professional group regarded overall in the external employment marketplace? Does it suffer from over-or-under supply? Does the status of the professional group tend to over-ride factors associated with the kind of organisation one might previously have worked in?

The development of an employability scale was more successful than was anticipated, and is a significant outcome of the research project overall. Because of this a separate chapter (six) has been devoted to a discussion of the results from this scale. This incorporates: the contribution of the present study to our understanding of employability

as a research concept, a discussion of the components of employability, and a suggested agenda for further research using or based on this instrument.

4.5.7 Subjective Career Success

Subjective Career Success was an area that had been neglected previously in the study of professional and managerial careers. Most studies seem to focus on objective success (eg. pay, income growth, hierarchical position: the observable and quantifiable aspects of success) rather than subjective success (eg. one's attitude to any of the above and individuals own beliefs about success and failure in relation to their personal goals and timetable). No one scale was found to adequately cover both subjective and objective dimensions in a manner relevant to the professional sample, so measures were adapted from two main sources.

First, a study by Nabi (1999:215) that claimed to be of subjective success but which sometimes appeared quite objective in focus, supplied:

- I am in a position to do mostly work which I really like
- My job title is indicative of my progress and my responsibility in the organisation
- I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far.

Second, Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990:86) used a five item scale, as follows:

- I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career
- I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals
- I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income
- I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement
- I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills

Although the majority of these items may appear to relate to objective career success in the sense of material rewards and promotions what they actually refer to is the individual's attitude towards these objective measures. Thus the scale relates to, for example, their self-evaluation of their progress towards income goals rather than any absolute measure. Greenhaus Parasuraman and Wormley reported an acceptable level of

internal consistency for this five item scale (Alpha = 0.88), In the present study the alpha coefficient for the extended eight item scale was also 0.88. The scale appeared to be relevant to the aspirations and values of a professional sample and their 'subjective timetable' - how they expect their career success to map out over the course of their life.

4.5.8 Engagement with CPD

The final section of the questionnaire related to the individual's actual **engagement with Continuing Professional Development** or **CPDE**. This was not an affective scale as the above items are, it was simply intended to be a descriptive measure of what CPD individuals claim to engage in and to what extent. The questions were designed to be past-focused thus reflecting the CPD practices that the respondents had already engaged in, thus addressing the weakness in 'intent to' variables expressed by Dalton et al. (1999:1338) in that intention (future) may not be matched be reality of practice (past). Some related studies had measured CPD engagement in terms of 'hours' (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998), but in the present study a focus on the range of strategies employed (as in eg. Kennie and Enemark 1999:155) was felt to be more appropriate. Thus, items 62-94 are intended to illustrate the level of engagement that individuals have had with a range of CPD strategies. These questions were added at a mid-point of the field research, and were only completed by the Nottingham respondents (n=119).

For scoring, a five-point scale was devised (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = occasionally, 4 = quite often, 5 = frequently), as this was believed to be consistent with the general presentation of the questionnaire as a whole. The items were SPSS coded 1-5 as above with missing items coded as 9. Analysis was at two levels. First, by ranking the arithmetic mean score from each item (CPD1 - CPD33), an overall measure of the popularity of each item with this population could be ascertained. The results of this analysis are listed in chapter 7. Second, at an individual level the total score could be calculated for each respondent and used as a measure of their personal and individual engagement with CPD, and became a new variable, Total CPD Engagement, TCPDE.

In designing this list of items the intention was to go for as comprehensive a listing as possible, and to cover as wide a range of CPD strategies as possible. The list also aimed to address the issue of different kinds of knowledge one might reasonably expect professionals to possess or wish to develop. It is important to emphasise that this was not a scale designed to have good psychometric properties, simply a list of updating strategies. The item listing was informed by a very comprehensive literature search on the subject of professionals' CPD, which in itself was found to be mostly descriptive rather than empirical, critical or evaluative. The following section describes the construction of the listing and the sources of questions. Question items are listed in the questionnaire, presented in Appendix 3.

At the head of pages five and six of the questionnaire the following statement appeared:
'The following questions will help you to identify what activities you have engaged in, in relation to your CPD in the last twelve months. (original underline)
The wording was intended to emphasise the 'here and now' aspects of these CPD strategies, thus avoiding the drawbacks of recall-dependant questions relating to activities undertaken some time ago that may be 'hazy in their memory' (Sekaran 2000:238). The items listed can primarily be differentiated by process (the learning process employed) and content (the content of the knowledge gained). The first group of items (62-65 inclusive), were developed by the author and relate to content. The intention behind these was to attempt to address different types of knowledge including organisationally 'owned' specific work procedures such as an internal recruitment procedure (62), generic professional knowledge applicable to any organisation such as employment law (63), transferable skills relevant to the (HRM) job role but transferable to other professions or organisations such as interviewing skills (64), and self development of an academic nature that develops the individual's intellectual capacity or self esteem but is unrelated to job or profession - such as undertaking an Open University degree in English Literature (65). These categories are reasonably consistent with the views of Van der Heijden (2002:45), who suggested that:
' A multi-dimensional operationalisation of the concept of professional expertise should comprise the different types of knowledge that are inherent to a certain professional field.'

Van der Heijden identified three categories which are firstly related to the content of professional knowledge, secondly the understanding of that knowledge, and thirdly the skills needed to undertake one's professional tasks. Van der Heijden identified two further dimensions of professional expertise which were social recognition (covered in this study under employability) and intellectual growth (here, under CPDV and CPDE) and flexibility (covered to some extent in this study's scale of employability).

The next category (66-68) was also developed by the author, and relates to the process of learning employing a range of 'e-learning' strategies. These were informed by the author's personal experience of developing e-learning materials. Item 66 could potentially have been disaggregated into the four types of knowledge covered in items 62-65, and this may be an item for further development. Item 67 (email) reflects a relatively informal learning process, certainly less structured even than an online discussion forum (item 68).

The next group of items (72-78) were informed by a range of sources in the CPD literature, including Woodall (2000), the CIPD's consultative document on continuing professional development (CIPD:2002a), and Kennie and Enemark (1998). Items 72-78 inclusive were ordered as if on a continuum from employer focused internal training courses (72) to self-focused secondments and transfers (78), although their scoring was not linked in any way. Responses to the first items in this group were expected to reflect concerns identified in the literature about perceived employer 'ownership' of CPD (Sandelands 1998:75).

Items 79-84 inclusive were most strongly influenced by the CIPD consultative document on CPD, but did not make reference to the CIPD's specific requirement of 35 hours of CPD per year, as the intention was to develop the listing for application to other professional groups. Generally these strategies relate to less formal methods of learning, from informal teamwork to the learning acquired through the activity of keeping a portfolio .

Items 85-90 were derived from Kennie and Enemark (1998) and include what one might expect as more traditional approaches to professional updating such as reading

journals (85, 87), as well as some approaches not previously covered (86,89). Item 90 is the final substantive item to be listed and relates to activities which may develop the individual in areas relevant to work yet are totally unrelated to work. An example could be the author's involvement in sail training for young people, that develops valuable elements of team building and trust for the facilitators as well as the participants.

Items 91 and 92 are 'process' questions that aim to differentiate between those planned and unplanned methods of learning which may be included elsewhere in the listing. Items 93 and 94 afford respondents the space for any comments of their own they may wish to add. Item 95 was derived from Kennie and Enemark (1998) which looks ahead to individual's self perceived development needs (content). In fact, items 93 (especially) and 94 produced very comprehensive listings which are discussed in chapter six, and which are included as appendices 4 and 5 respectively.

4.5.9. Confidentiality and Anonymity

This section applies to both the qualitative preliminary research and the quantitative main survey. According to Jankowicz (2000:290 et seq.) there are both pragmatic and ethical reasons for assuring individuals of the confidentiality of their responses. This is important in the context of this project as individuals may understandably feel a little sensitive about issues relating to their career success or employability (some very much so, where one or two unemployed respondents made very detailed margin notes which are referred to in chapter 7) and some survey respondents who declined to reveal their age even though the questionnaire was anonymous. Anonymity can be maintained by simply identifying respondents by a pseudonym (here, as in the qualitative data) or an SPSS ID number (as one could in the quantitative data). On confidentiality, the researcher was required to give a written undertaking to the CIPD that the mailing list obtained would only be used for the purposes of this research project. Finally, a small number of respondents emailed the researcher expressing an interest in a summary of the research.

4.5.10 A Brief note on scaling

The scales described above are, as Oppenheim (1992:187) suggested, 'relatively overt measuring instruments designed to be used in surveys -'. The scales aimed to follow the principles outlined by Oppenheim in terms of unidimensionality (measuring one thing at a time), reliability, validity, and 'equal-appearing intervals' (Oppenheim 1992:188). Oppenheim suggested (page 195) that Likert's concern was for unidimensionality - that all the items on the scale should measure the same thing - and accordingly Likert scales were chosen for this survey. A five point scale was used to keep presentation and scoring as simple as possible. However one must accept the limitation, as Oppenheim (1992:200) suggested that neutral (middle) scores may be due to 'lukewarm response, lack of knowledge or attitude - ', or of both positive and negative feelings.

4.6 Survey Implementation

As far as was possible, an attempt was made to positively encourage the target audience to respond to the questionnaire. Following recommendations from Jankowicz (2000:287), a covering letter was included in each mailing, from the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch chair, using the CIPD letterhead. This confirmed to the sample that their response was valued, that the research had the support of the Institute (which Jankowicz called 'establishing status and legitimacy' and Oppenheim 1992:104 called 'sponsorship'), and also aimed to 'reduce costs to the respondent' (Jankowicz 2000:289) by giving an indication of the time the questionnaire would take to complete and enclosing a reply paid envelope.

4.6.1 Pilot Testing

Oppenheim (1996:48) emphasised the importance of pilot testing 'almost everything' to be used in the research. The exploratory, qualitative interview script had been piloted with two Human Resources professionals known to the researcher and no significant concerns emerged at that stage. Initial concerns regarding the survey were addressed by pilot-testing of the survey questionnaire with a convenient, captive (!) and co-operative audience of student CIPD members at three UK universities. Pallant (2001:4) suggested

that the pilot testing should be done with the same sort of people as those to whom the main survey would be administered, and the student groups in being from the same occupational background were believed to fulfil this criterion, as well as being very accessible with a guaranteed response rate. This part of the CIPD pilot was conducted with the researcher present, where respondents were asked to identify any errors (eg. typographical) in the questionnaire, questions that did not make sense, or questions that were difficult to answer for some reason, and thus to reduce the risk of bias in the responses (Sekaran 2000:248). Following this process some revisions were made, principally to address typographical errors or aspects of presentation that were confusing. All items were renumbered to mirror exactly the numbering in the SPSS codebook, and where some scales had been randomised their order was restored, both these actions to facilitate data entry. What the pilot did not pick up were the potentially alienating nature of some of the questions to self-employed HR practitioners. Also, item 11 (employment status) did not provide for retired members other than under 'other' and the questionnaire itself was based on the premise that members were employed - not all were, and those who were not sometimes wrote rather pointed comments on their responses! Those members who were self employed consultants generally felt that the questionnaire was not appropriate to them as it made an assumption of employment in organisations. Moreover they felt the CIPD didn't recognise or meet their needs - an unexpected outcome of the research that will be discussed in more depth in chapter 7. This has subsequently been reflected in a national level debate in the institute.

4.6.2 Survey Administration

The author's membership of the CIPD in the area was used to facilitate contact, and the local branch chair was very supportive. Having negotiated access to the FCIPD's and MCIPD's in the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch area, the survey was distributed by post, direct to the preferred mailing address (normally home) held on the CIPD database. This used the postal system of the author's employing university, who supported this task financially and clerically, and who also supplied the reply paid envelopes. The last return questionnaire was received three months after the questionnaires were first distributed. Nine hundred and seventy three questionnaires were mailed, two hundred and thirty four replies were received, giving an overall

response rate of 24.05%, which was considered acceptable given the respectable sample size, and just about acceptable for statistical analysis given the power considerations described in section 4.5.4 above.

4.6.3 Data Entry, Screening and Cleaning the Data

Following the creation of the SPSS codebook, data entry was undertaken using SPSS version 10. Data were 'screened and cleaned' using procedures outlined in Pallant (2001:42). First, categorical variables were checked for out-of range values and that the minima and maxima made sense. On continuous variables minima and maxima were also checked, and that the means were approximately what one might expect given previous reported research. Throughout, missing values were coded as '9', with the exception of the job title category (item 9, where code '9' actually referred to the title 'lecturer'). Where errors were detected (typically entering eg. '22' instead of '2') these were corrected. In addition to the above approximately one in four questionnaires were randomly re-checked at the data input stage to ensure that this had been undertaken accurately. More than half of the questionnaires contained missing data, as only the respondents

Table 7: Response rates by postcode

Postcode area	sample size (n) (FCIPD+MCIPD)	response (n)	response (%)
Derby	421	115	27.32%
Nottingham	552	119	21.56%
overall	973	234	24.05%

with Nottingham postcodes had been asked the questions regarding what CPD they actually undertook (items 62-93: CPDE). This was not considered a significant drawback although it is believed that the added length of the questionnaire for the NG postcodes had adversely affected the response rate, as illustrated in the table above. In the remainder of the questionnaire items (2-61) missing data were not a problem against any particular variable and all responses were used in data analysis. It was evident at the

data entry stage that a small number of respondents, notably the retired members, had omitted significant portions of their questionnaires however.

A number of studies have investigated some aspects of the CPD of CIPD members, although none have included the range of variables that has been attempted here, and there have been slight differences in the definition of the samples. Jones and Fear (1994:52) reported a response rate of 21%, Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:68) reported a response rate of 25%, Sadler-Smith et al (2000) a response rate of 23%, and the Harris Research Corporate Member's Survey (2000b:1) reported a 33% response rate. Sekaran (2000:234), suggested with low response rates 'it is difficult to establish the representativeness of the sample', leading to possible response bias. Suggested remedies include sending a follow-up letter, monetary incentives, or including a stamped envelope. The first of these was not considered as it was believed the sample had sufficient power, the second discounted for practical reasons, and the third was provided.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS -

4.7.1 Preliminary Analyses

Data were analysed using SPSS (version 10). Preliminary analyses were undertaken to ascertain the suitability of the data for analysis including skewness and kurtosis. All the continuous variables demonstrated a negative skew, and either peaked or fairly peaked distributions with some variation by gender and membership level. The distributions are described further in chapter six. Only subjective career success (SCS) and perceived empoyability (EMP) showed reasonably normal distributions. However as Tabachnick and Fidell suggested (1996:73), with a reasonably large sample:'skewness will not make a substantive difference in the analysis'.

As the preliminary data analysis was undertaken, essentially working through basic descriptive statistics to get a 'feel' for the data under consideration, a number of interesting aspects emerged which compared with some of the literature reviewed, notably the (essentially descriptive) CIPD reports produces by Harris research (Harris 1999, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c). Data were also analysed by gender and professional level.

Although these factors were not incorporated in the hypothesised relationships between the study variables, at a descriptive level some variations were observed although these were not often statistically significant. In addition the CPDE (CPD engagement) items were primarily intended for descriptive reporting but nonetheless produced some interesting comparisons with the available literature. Descriptive statistics are therefore discussed in more detail in chapter 7.

4.7.2 Statistical relationships between variables

In the hypothesised relationships a scatterplot was produced to obtain a visual suggestion of a possible correlation. These results are reported and discussed in more detail in chapter seven. Other aspects of the research could not be expressed as a tightly specified hypothesis, principally due to the exploratory nature of the research arising either from the fact that there was very little background theory to inform methodological design (eg. employability), or the uncertain nature of the relationships (eg. career success and CPD, and employability and CPD). These aspects were expressed as more 'open' research questions, listed at the start of this chapter, and principally discussed in chapter 8.

While it has been emphasised above (section 4.5: 'methodological considerations') that this study aimed to test correlation rather than causality, as a cautionary approach partial correlation was attempted for all the hypothesised relationships, systematically controlling for all the continuous variables employed in this study, as Pallant (2001:112) suggested. Partial correlations were also checked for the external and internal employability sub-scales, and for age, gender, qualification level (graduate or non-graduate), professional membership level (Fellow, Member), and job level in the employing organisation. Although the related studies on CPD did not appear to use control variables at all, one previous study in the field (Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) had revealed interaction effects between gender and job level in respect on CPD planning and recording; and also between year's membership and CPD recording. In the present study the focus was on attitudes to CPD rather than the record-keeping but nonetheless these interaction effects were explored further and the results appear in chapter eight.

4.7.3 Multiple Hierarchical Regression

Recurring themes in the literature suggested that what might be presented here could be a complex set of relationships rather than simple correlations between variables. Multiple hierarchical regression was therefore utilised to consider how well a set of the variables could predict a particular outcome, and also what was the relative contribution of each of the variables to predicting our main variables of interest, in this case CPD (both the value of CPD, and CPD engagement), and employability. The models are represented by research questions RQ30 and RQ31 at the start of this chapter. Pallant (2001:134) emphasises the importance of having a sound theoretical rationale for using multiple hierarchical regression, expressed (page 134) as: 'Don't use multiple regression as a fishing expedition'. It should also be emphasised that, as Tabachnik and Fidell suggest (1989:126): 'Regression analyses reveal relationships among variables but do not imply that the relationships are causal'.

Here, the theoretical direction came from those aspects of the literature that integrated themes from a number of different areas, suggesting connections that should be explored further. For example, the importance of learning at work as sustaining employability (Garavan 1999, Rajan 2000), learning and 'professional expertise' (Van der Heijden 2002), learning and career success (Nabi 1998). Prior to multiple hierarchical regression being carried out, data were screened for violations of assumptions of multicollinearity, singularity and normality, noting that (Pallant 2001:136): 'Mutliple regression.....makes a number of assumptions about the data, and it is not all that forgiving if they are violated'.
The results of the research questions addressed through multiple hierarchical regression are presented in chapter 8.

4.8 METHODOLOGY: CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has discussed the methodological issues relating to the present study, described the development of the exploratory research, the main survey, and provided a rationale for their design. Substantial efforts to address potential weaknesses of the survey design have also been discussed, and these have been addressed so far as possible within the survey design. The next chapters discuss the results of the field study, with first a consideration of the exploratory qualitative fieldwork followed by a more detailed analysis of the survey data in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER 5: EXPLORATORY STUDY RESULTS

This chapter considers the results to the exploratory qualitative research, as a foundation for the more substantial analysis of the survey data in chapters six and eight, and in relation to the broad aims and specific research questions identified below. The broad aims behind the use of qualitative research in the form of semi-structured interviews were to:

- refine the theoretical issues identified up to that point in the literature review
- generate themes for further exploration
- focus the research project overall
- find out what the issues were to be explored later in a quantitative survey

The specific research questions addressed by the exploratory research were identified at the start of the methodology chapter. First, relating to professions and professional organisations:

RQ1: What are professionals' attitudes to commitment as potentially extending beyond the organisation?

RQ2: How the professionals perceive their relative relationship to other groups and bodies?

RQ3: How committed are professionals to their professional organisation?

Second, relating to CPD and professional learning:

RQ4: Whose needs, if anyone's, do individuals perceive as being served by CPD?

RQ5: Do the sample perceive the need to engage in CPD, and what are their future priorities?

Third, relating to employability and careers

RQ6: How are professionals in organisations making sense of changing work patterns and careers?

RQ7: What do the sample understand by the term 'employability'

The literature review relating to the changing nature of work and careers had suggested that a focus on organisationally located commitment and career strategies may have been too limiting in the context of the twenty-first century professional. It was believed by seeking the views first hand of individuals in professional roles on a range of issues that the direction of research could be clarified. The rationale for the introduction of qualitative research at this stage was therefore to aim for a 'funneling' approach, or more accurately 'focusing'. The researcher had identified that the focus was not organisationally located commitment, but was seeking some other anchor for the research and it was hoped that the qualitative research would reveal this. As Hammersley and Atkinson (1983:175) pointed out:
' - it is frequently only over the course of the research that one discovers what the research is really 'about', and it is not uncommon for it to turn out to be something quite remote from the initially foreshadowed problems.'

At the time the qualitative data were collected, no final decision had been made about which professional group(s) to focus on. A convenient sample was drawn from the researcher's personal and work-related contacts, this being believed to be appropriate to this exploratory stage of the research (Sekaran 2000:297). A strategy of drawing the (later) survey sample from a similarly wide range of professional organisations was briefly considered but this would have compromised homogeneity. This problem would have been compounded by variable response rates between the sub-groups. However, at the exploratory stage the aim was to elicit the attitudes, values and perceptions of a range of individuals who could be categorised as 'professional', and it was believed that the sample selected would achieve this aim.

This phase of the research therefore involved structured interviews with twenty professionals drawn from a range of professional associations meeting the criteria identified in the literature review. The rationale behind the design of the interviews and methodological considerations are discussed in the previous chapter. The interviews sought to understand the nature and causes of: work commitment for the professional workers surveyed, and how this related to their professional commitment, their self perceptions as professionals, especially for those in newly professionalised occupations, the types of professional learning and CPD they engaged in and why, and finally their

understanding of the construct 'employability'. Interviews took place in a variety of locations, mostly the respondent's place of work, but some in the researcher's office, with significant efforts made to ensure privacy. The interviews were recorded with the respondent's permission, then later transcribed, which, as Silverman (2000:150) suggested, involved:

' - close, repeated listenings to recordings which reveal previously unnoted recurring features of the organisation of talk'.

Data were coded by thematic headings (Silverman 2000:147), noting the limitation that he identified that this can ensnare the researcher in a 'powerful conceptual grid from which it is difficult to escape'. Silverman also pointed to the danger (page 150) of premature theory construction and over-emphasis on 'general, non detailed characterisations'.

5.2 Exploratory Results: Analysis

The following section identifies the themes that emerged from the data and includes some selected quotes. These broadly illustrate the thematic nature of the results, but also include some more individual responses where these proved to be particularly stimulating for new ideas. Concluding comments and implications of the research appear at the end of the chapter.

Associations whose members were surveyed included the Association of University Administrators, the CIPD, the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants, the Chartered Institute of Purchasing and Supply, the Institute of Careers Guidance, the Institute of Housing, the Institute of Learning and Teaching, and the Chartered Institute of Marketing. The respondents were employed in a range of organisations, with an unintended skew towards the not-for profit and public sectors. Gender was not identified as a key feature of the research initially, with 12 respondents being women, and 8 men. The only respect in which gender issues emerged in the data was that individuals without domestic responsibilities were perceived by a minority of respondents as having more time to engage in CPD and 'professional' activities. This could be inferred (it was not explicitly stated) to apply more to women than men. Each interview lasted between 30

and 60 minutes, and followed a broadly standard script (see appendix three), with some prompting by the interviewer where respondents wandered off the point or lost the focus of the question. Pseudonyms have been used to preserve confidentiality.

More than half of the respondents were graduates, female, and in the 28-40 age range. Six of the respondents held Master's degrees and one had a PhD., albeit in a subject unrelated to her present role. While none of the respondents were working towards professional qualifications at this stage (other than maintaining CPD portfolios) one was working towards an M.Phil. and one an Ed.D. Qualification based updating was not a priority for this sample as many were well qualified already. On commitment to work organisation or profession, most respondents reported a stronger commitment to their profession than their organisation, while just one believed that the 'core values' of the organisation were paramount ('if you can't subscribe to these, well - '). Most reported a balance, for example:

'It's important to be committed to both, because to work in an organisation and be comfortable in it I've got to feel a sense of commitment to it - but then personally I need to derive some satisfaction from feeling I'm part of a recognised profession. They are of equal importance.' Jude:UniversityAdministrator

Organisational attachments were still strong for some individuals however, though not necessarily as a matter of preference:

' - technically my work has to take precedence and that is how my superiors see it.'

Judy: CIPD Member

Similarly, right at the end of the interview, one respondent reflected back on an earlier part of the discussion:

' You are back to those first questions what is the most important to you the profession or the job and at the end of the day the profession doesn't have a lot of day to day influence. It is the employer who gives - the day to day job and security.'

Gill: CIPD Member

Others reflected perhaps what they saw as the employer's commitment towards them:

'It's short term long term. I think in the long term you have to be committed to your

professional organisation, in the short term your commitment has to lie towards your employer.' Harry: CIMA Member

Some were more negative however:
' I think I tend more towards the profession because I don't think organisations have a commitment to staff any more - their role is get what they can out of you for the minimum amount - '. Susan: Careers Advisor

While all the respondents were full time employees a small number alluded to other employment, typically consulting work or lecturing: 'Do you mean my fee earning responsibilities or the day job?'

Harry: CIMA Member

Many of the respondents commented on the changing nature of work and their work organisations, even to down to the detail of how change would manifest itself:
'It will probably be unrecognisable from the organisation it is today - I think for a long time we'll all continue to be very happy, but I think at some stage it will be - a sudden quantum leap - then, probably due to financial pressures, it will all change fundamentally.' Alan: CIMA member

Respondents were very clear about what it meant to be a professional even if their own professional group was not, in their view, very highly regarded. This was a recurring theme in the responses from the organisationally-located managerial professions, with the general exception of accountants. Many respondents referred to 'being bound by a common code of ethical standards', or referred to client or colleague expectations of integrity and behaviour. However the standards and regulatory aspects could at once be seen as problematic. In the case of CIMA, for example, this was referred to by one respondent as both the professional organisation and the trade association, meaning in that latter sense the regulatory authority: a dual role that could be seen as contradictory.

A variety of responses were received on how different professions were perceived but it was interesting to note how many respondents drew comparisons with specific professions such as accountancy, medicine and law. One even referred to international

differences in perceptions:

'When I go on holiday and people ask me what I do, cor blimey, red carpet treatment, go to Cyprus it's simply amazing'

Edward: University Lecturer

Another cited an unusual source of reference:

'If you take the more traditional professions I think that people tend to view them as a high knowledge group of people and that knowledge has tended to create status as well. But if you look at that book, you know, *'Hitchhiker's guide to the galaxy'*, you have this group of people trying to save the earth and they are hairdressers and personnel managers, all the dross of the world - '

Jill, CIPD Member

This perception of the varying external 'worth' of different professions was to influence the development of the employability matrix (see appendix 1), specifically items such as: 'the external labour market's perception of my professional group'. Some members of newer professional groups such as University Administrators were actually quite defensive, and keen to emphasise the aspects of their organisation that one might align with professional attributes, such as the development of a CPD scheme, the development of a qualifications structure, and the annual conference. Members of what were referred to as 'more established professions' (again, such as accountancy) referred to the professional examinations and practical training as a 'rite of passage', and that because these 'spurs are hard to earn', this added to one's professional credibility.

Some individuals were more cynical about the emergence of 'new' professions and their acquisition of the trappings of professionalism. This even extended to the way in which individuals used language in workplace interactions to impose barriers:

'It ('professional') is the most over-used word in the NHS. If you have a sentence that starts with - ***speaking professionally as a nurse*** - you know then that you've got a problem, because what you are going to get it is - we are a profession, you don't understand us, you are certainly not one of us, so how could you make any comment whatsoever on what we do. This exclusion zone that clinicians go into is where they use technical terms and clinical terms so that those not in the know, can't possibly be.'

Tony: NHS Training Manager, CIPD

Even where individuals did not perceive their professional groups to have high status, for example within the organisation, some believed that they as individuals could acquire what they perceived to be 'professional' credibility (item 15). However this was more because of their (and their perception of others) perception of their individual attributes, than of their professional label.

'I only know that people who trust me, trust me, and that could be because of me. I don't know if it's because of my position. I'm good at my job.'

Bella: CIPD Member

In respect of the perception of the status of their group within the work organisation, there was substantial consistency within the subgroups in the responses. Almost all CIPD members suggested that their function was poorly regarded internally, but some of the newer professions fared even worse:

'There are parts of .....who think we are totally jumped up nothings who are one step away from catering - they have never appreciated that we are a professional body, professionally qualified and trained - people think we are like dinner ladies, we come in, do our bit and go home again - we are very much the unfavoured, unwashed and unclean - .'

Susan: University Careers Advisor

Once again this was an area where inter-group comparisons were frequently made with 'older' professions as the benchmark:

' - those people who are professionally qualified are regarded quite highly, within the council as a whole compared to say the city attorney's department our legal professionals, I think we are regarded as a new profession and not held in quite the same status, however in terms of strategic policies it is noticeable now that representatives from the department - are being involved with meetings with chief executives - '.

Mary: CIPD member

The strategic shift was a feature of many CIPD responses, and later to recur in the development needs suggested in the survey responses, reflecting the trend in the 1990's and onwards for Personnel to be seen to operate at strategic level. This was not universal

however:

'The senior management team seem to regard the personnel function as secondary - '.

Jude: CIPD Member

As suggested above in respect of external perceptions of different groups, their internal perception was to inform the design of the employability matrix such as: 'how well my professional group is respected internally', later to inform questions in items in the survey instrument.

In respect of professional organisations and networking, levels of engagement were very variable, with most individuals not attending branch meetings and not really involved other than reading the professional publications. Having said that, one individual was on the national executive of their body (AUA), another directly employed on a part time basis as a trainer (CIMA), and yet another on a national examinations committee (CIPD). All these individuals were very clear on the mission and values of their professional organisation. Citizenship behaviour in one's professional organisation came at a price however, and CIPD members especially pointed to the heavy demands that the institute could make on their time if one became involved:

' - they expect you to sit on at least two or three active committees which is all extra time and a problem - it is interesting the types who become branch committee members, often they are past the bringing up young children stage for example -'

Ian: CIPD Member

Levels of professional networking varied significantly as a function of involvement at (local) branch level although the AUA members, who did not have a branch structure all referred to the national conference and their organisation's email communications. For others the main inhibitors related to time constraints or location of meetings, while others networked with 'preferred associates' when they needed assistance with a matter, against some unspecified future reciprocation, and cited the importance of trust in interpersonal relationships. Respondents have tended to focus on general professional involvement rather than CPD involvement.

Respondents generally provided less detailed answers to the question about what sorts of professional learning they engaged in, than has been hoped for. Motivations for

engaging in updating varied: from 'enabling me to get my job done more effectively' and 'I worry about losing skills and losing touch' to, surprisingly, in the light of budgetary restrictions in local government organisations:

'I am eligible to go on almost any course I may wish to go on so in my case the question is not so much about not doing any learning, it is more about selecting appropriate courses to go on, because there really is a great deal of opportunity to do that:'

Mary: CIPD member

Also from the CIPD, one respondent focused on a surprising topic when asked what was perceived as the priority topic for learning and development:

'Strangely enough it is the understanding of CPD itself. I am horrified when I speak to employers - and they have no knowledge that standards have changed - it is becoming a lot more strategy orientated. I think as 'graduateness' comes through things are changing but people are not keeping up to date out there - a lot of managers do not want to engage in CPD and they see it as an extra chore'.

Jill: CIPD member

Professions impacted on by legislative changes such as Human Resources especially focused on the need to keep up to date, including legislation from the European Union. Individuals in the public or not for profit sectors (local government, health service, universities) often spoke of the need to keep up with 'initiatives' and in some cases suggested that the training may be both a function of and a consequence of high levels of staff turnover. Generally individuals from public sector organisations seemed rather overwhelmed by the need to keep up with a huge amount of new information:

'It is not so much what do we need to know as what don't we need to know because there is this kind of tidal wave coming at you.'

Tony: CIPD Member

Some individuals referred to preferred learning styles, although these tended to be those from occupational groups (eg. CIPD members, careers advisors) which one might expect to be familiar with such frameworks. One described with some passion the conflict between family interests and trying to keep up to date, in much the same way that another had related to committee work:

' - it is a dreadful shame that we are all supposed to act like single people that have no other life outside, it's the single people who tend to get on so much better because they can commit so much more.'

Julie: CIPD member

On employability, the experience here echoed that of Rajan et al. (2000) where as many definitions were produced as there were respondents, the following being a focused example:

'It is about an individual's attractiveness to an employer and how the individual's skills can best fit in with the employers clients and the organisation culture.'

Jan, AUA Member

Others were more expansive, but alluded to different meanings of employability within what they themselves perceived as one definition:

'Employability - is my employability elsewhere and the level of responsibility I take for that but I also believe there is a level of responsibility within the organisation to ensure I am employable elsewhere. I think it is dreadful when an organisation has somebody leaving and they say -why are they leaving - I think they should say we did something to help that person get that so it is a double edged thing in terms of responsibility for keeping up with knowledge and skill. My own employability is low - which I have got to take responsibility for and my organisation has got to take responsibility for.'

June: CIPD Member

This perception of employability as being both a phenomenon that could be collectively applied to the workforce as a result of HRM strategies, and at the same time an individual phenomenon that could secure benefits at an individual level, highlighted an important issue relating to employability as a construct. A good deal of the literature in managerial or practitioner publications, or policy reports, refers to the former (eg. Tamkin and Hillage 1999, Rajan et al. 2000, Baruch 2002). There is a small body of empirical research (Nielsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002, and this research project) in relation to the latter. It is important to be clear as to what sort of employability one is dealing with. The qualitative data gathered were very influential in terms of shaping ideas and determining the (individual not employer-driven) direction of this research.

5.3 Conclusions: Exploratory Results

The following section first summarises responses to the research questions identified at the start of the chapter, structured by the same three headings, followed by some more general observations on the contribution of this stage of the research.

Recognising the cautionary comments expressed above about the sample size and the limitations of a convenience sample, some attributes of the sample were identifiable and showed a strong similarity to the attributes of the sample from the quantitative study. There were more female than male respondents and a higher proportion of graduates than expected, notably among the 'new professions' (eg. the AUA), with a number of the female Human Resources respondents qualified to MA/MBAlevel or higher. Because they were well qualified already, further qualifications were not seen as a priority. The following sections address each if the identified research questions in turn.

RQ1: What are professionals' attitudes to commitment as potentially extending beyond the organisation?

Most respondents reported a stronger attachment to the profession than their work organisation although many cited the importance of being committed to both. Work organisations were perceived as being not very committed to individuals, and some individuals emphasised the need to take charge of their own destinies and to be responsible for heir own careers. Some emphasised the need for work-life balance (Kaschube et al. 1996), both in relation to their work, and to the demands of the profession.

Professional networks beyond organisations gave an identification with themes and commonalities in the work done. This was notably the AUA members who participated in on-line discussion groups, leading to the inclusion of this as a 'CPD engagement' item, later in the survey. Other respondents cited the high personal cost in terms of time and the clash with family commitments as reasons for not getting involved in professional networks or the local branch structure. Many respondents were very much aware of the changing nature of work and careers, stating this as a matter of concern and an incentive

to keep up to date, and some anticipated very significant structural change in the future. This was not always perceived negatively: the same state of flux was seen as an opportunity for newer professional groups to advance their interests in organisations (eg..AUA)

RQ2: How do professionals perceive their relative relationship to other groups and bodies?

Many respondents were very frank about perceptions of relative status of different professions, both inside and outside their work organisations. Members of newer professional bodies (eg. the AUA) were on one hand self confident and assertive in their organisations, while on the other hand feeling unrecognised and undervalued (eg. university careers advisors). Many respondents made comparisons of relative status between their own professional organisation and some of the more traditional professions, typically medicine and the law, whose members were not represented in this study. This was to inform later work on the employability scale in relation to perceptions of the relative worth of different occupations, and the demand for their services.

RQ3: How committed are professionals to their professional organisation?

Although respondents reported a strong commitment to the profession, this was seen as distinct from the professional organisation, as represented by local or national structures. Most respondents saw the professional organisation as being there to support ethics, values and standards; but most were cautious about being too involved with it citing the high personal cost in terms of time as the principal barrier. Two of the respondents were involved in the professional organisation at national level

Some of the most substantial findings related to the second group of questions on CPD and professional learning, confirming this as the main 'anchor' for the ongoing research project.

RQ4: Whose needs, if anyone's do professionals perceive as being served by continuing professional development (CPD)

RQ5: Do the sample perceive the need to engage in CPD, and what are their future priorities?

Most respondents were positive about the need for CPD, identifying it as a necessity rather than a luxury, but with a recognition of the difficulties of finding time for updating. In fact, while most were well intentioned about engagement with CPD, the only ones who were formally keeping records were those for whom it was a professional requirement or who were upgrading their membership, again consistent with the literature (Sadler Smith and Badger 1998, Harris 2000, Tyler 2001). Respondents described a range of developmental processes but saw formal training as primarily serving the employers interests rather than their own - a link back to the ownership of CPD and in line with other studies (Jones and Fear 1994, Blyth 2000). Barriers to CPD included both work and family pressures. Respondents were not interested in engaging in qualification-based updating as they ere well qualified already, preferring reading (for example of professional magazines for CIPD members). AUA members described an email-based forum for exchanging views on matters of shared concern, although they did not have a local branch structure unlike other professional organisations..

RQ6: How are professionals in organisations making sense of changing work patterns and careers?

RQ7: What are the implications of changing work patterns and careers for these professionals in organisations?

While for many respondents a traditional, hierarchical career was very much an expectation, and they were 'willing to put in the hours and accept the consequences' (Guest et al 1996:34), many respondents spoke of their strong sense of identity, more particularly as members of a profession (Kessler and Undy 1996). Some respondents were extremely realistic about the scale and scope of changes likely to occur to both their organisations and their professions in the future, and a small number had already endured major, forced change. Respondents especially emphasised the need to keep up with a rapidly changing knowledge base, from a range of influences including technological change, legal changes, or especially in public sector organisations the need to keep abreast of government initiatives. This also highlights the challenge for professional institutions of maintaining a codified body of knowledge in the face of rapid change (eg. the CIPD), although CPD in relation to this was not often mandatory and not often monitored (PARN 2002b).

RQ8: What do the sample understand by the term 'employability'.

The qualitative study reinforced the findings of some of the literature (eg. Tamkin and Hillage 1998, Rajan 2000) in that a wide variety of definitions of employability were identified, broadly falling into two groups: those relating to individual perceptions of their own futures, and those relating to Human Resource strategies promoted by employers as an alternative to career progression in organisations. The former definition was later adopted as a working model for the research project. Those professionals who engaged in CPD were confident about their own perceptions of individual employability, but their motivation was primarily self-directed and not necessarily focused within their present employment, which may raise retention issues for their employers. The 'ownership' of CPD has been a recurring theme in the literature (Taylor 1996, Kennie 1998, Sandelands 1998). This self-directed nature of CPD reinforced the need to take the body of research out of the organisational context.

To summarise, the exploratory qualitative research represented an important turning-point in the progress of this research project. At the time it was undertaken the researcher had become bogged down in the organisational commitment literature, which was not sufficiently engaging as a focus for the research: it was difficult to see where an original contribution could be made. The qualitative research was important in getting the fieldwork started in this project, and added further value in respect of engaging the researcher's thought processes with matters relating to CPD and professionals. One of the main aims of this stage of the research was to ascertain whether organisational commitment should continue as one of the main study variables, and the responses given here in relation to professional as compared to organisational commitment directed the research towards a beyond-organisation mindset as being potentially more relevant in a 21st century context. The research highlighted issues relating to the self confidence and emotional security of newly-professionalised occupations, and the ways in which professions were perceived (differently) inside and outside organisations, later to inform aspects of the employability matrix (figure 2, above). It confirmed the researcher's view that the focus of the research lay with the individual as a professional person, relatively independent of the need for organisational patronage, even if the individual worked in an organisational context, and that the research should emphasise the need for

professional updating in the form of CPD as a strategy through which professionals could stay 'ahead of the game' and assert their independence. Finally, it confirmed the need to enhance our understanding of the term 'employability'. Subsequent further literature search in the fields of both CPD and employability identified both these areas as relatively under-researched, adding further emphasis to their inclusion as variables in the study.

Reviewing the broad aims of the qualitative study identified at the start of this chapter, this was undoubtedly successful in refining the theoretical aspects of the research. A focus on professional rather than organisational commitment, with a future-orientated emphasis on learning (CPD) and employability, provided the potential for a research design linked to a more positive mindset, relevant to contemporary conditions, on the part of professional employees. Following this study, subsequent further literature analysis confirmed the choice of variables, and identified the CIPD as an appropriate sample population. Finally, the qualitative research contributed to the design of the survey, whose results are discussed in the following chapters. The next chapter addresses perhaps the most original aspect of this research project: the practical application and psychometric properties of the employability scale.

CHAPTER 6: THE EMPLOYABILITY SCALE

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an evaluation of the practical application of the employability scale developed for the purpose of this study, and a discussion of its underlying factor structure. The scale development is described above in section 4.6.6, where it is stated that this scale was developed because no ready to use measure existed at the time the field work was undertaken. Descriptive statistics for this scale are reported in section 6.3.5. The scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.88, which is believed to be acceptable for a new and untested measure. As a comparison Van der Heijden (2002:52) with a similarly grounded scale, reported an alpha coefficient of 0.68. Descriptive statistics in relation to the employability scale are presented in chapter 7.The statistical relationships between employability, professional commitment, the perceived value of CPD, and subjective career success are reported in chapter 8. Data for both the whole-scale correlations, and correlations with the two sub-scales (see below) are presented.

Specifically, this chapter addresses the following research questions:
RQ21: What components of employability are discernible in the respondents' perceptions of their own employability?
RQ23: What are the psychometric properties of the employability scale(s) derived from the samples' perceptions?
RQ24: To what extent is there overlap (redundancy) between the SCS scale and employability?

The development and subsequent testing of an employability scale has been a major outcome of this research project. Because this is a new scale that may have potential for extension and replication in the future, this chapter describes the exploration of the underlying factor structure. This was done first to establish what the structure was, and second to determine if it was indeed one scale, or two, through principal components analysis. Considering that the conceptual basis for the scale was internal *and* external labour markets as well as individual *and* professional factors, the presence of more than one scale was considered highly likely, and it was suspected there may be as many as

Table 8: Employability scale items

1.	*I have good prospects in this organisation because my employer values my personal contribution*
2.	*Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained*
3.	*My personal networks in this organisation help me in my career*
4	*I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now*
5.	The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation
6.	I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere
7.	I can use my professional networks and business contacts to develop my career
8.	I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now
9.	*Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation*
10.	*People who do the same job as me who work in this organisation are valued highly*
11.	If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation
12.	People who do a job like mine in organisations similar to the one I presently work in are really in demand by other organisations
13.	I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organisation
14.	Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers
15.	I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant
16.	People with my kind of job-related experience are very highly valued in their organisation and outside whatever sort of organisation they have previously worked in

four factors. A limitation of the scale (actually a design flaw) is that it is only really relevant for individuals in an organisational employment relationship, not self employment, and that this shortcoming explains the majority of the missing data for this scale. Finally, employability, as conceived in the present study relates to an individual's perception of their ability to get the job they want or keep the job they have, and is thus

similar to Nielsen's conception (1999:393 et seq.) of 'workability', or Van der Heijden's definition as 'being employed in a job' (2002:44). As such it is quite distinct from a concern for lack of employability which may be analogous to the recognition of development needs, and is a perception of how the individuals believe they are likely to fare in the future, rather than an evaluation of past performance such as career success.

6.2 Principal Components Analysis: whole scale

The sixteen items of the employability scale were subjected to principal components analysis using SPSS. Selected results (KMO and Bartlett's tests, eigenvalues, scree plot and a component matrix) are presented in appendix 6. Prior to performing the principal components analysis the suitability of the data for factor analysis were assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix (see appendix 6) revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin value was .862 (above .6: Pallant 2001:157) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant at p =.000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of four components with eigenvalues meeting Kaiser's criterion (Pallant 2001:154) by exceeding 1, explaining 36.01%, 10.14%, 7.49% and 6.89% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot reveals a clear break after the first component. It was decided to initially retain two components for further investigation, as suggested by Pallant (2002:161) 'Often using the Kaiser crierion, you will find that too many components are extracted.' The rotated component matrix (table 24) revealed the presence of a relatively simple structure with two components clearly identified. Although the rotation converged in three iterations, the matrix shows all loadings over .3, had the matrix been set up to show loadings over .4 then there would have been a 'clean' result with two totally separate components. Showing loadings over .3, most variables loaded on one component. The two factor solution explained a total of 46.15% of the variance. There is a strong theoretical rationale (Hillage and Pollard 1998, Rajan 2000, and Van der Heijden 2002) for pursuing the 'two-factor' line of enquiry as there is a body of literature (above) that suggests that employability may have two components: internal

employability (relating to the internal labour market) and external employability.

Table 9: Rotated component matrix

Rotated Component Matrix [a]

	Component	
	1	2
EMP11	.701	
EMP13	.682	
EMP12	.677	
EMP14	.668	.307
EMP16	.668	
EMP8	.636	
EMP15	.580	
EMP6	.572	
EMP7	.489	.398
EMP5	.483	.356
EMP1		.757
EMP3		.739
EMP2		.734
EMP4		.700
EMP10		.561
EMP9		.496

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

However these sources do not go into the level of detail on what the components of internal and external employability might be as has been attempted in the present study. The results presented here would therefore appear to support the view that employability is a two-dimensional construct, while adding detail as to the understanding of how it may be composed. Thus while employability was initially conceived as being represented by one scale, the data gathered from this sample may suggest otherwise. On the one hand, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the whole scale is high, the scree plot

employability (relating to the internal labour market) and external employability.

Table 9: Rotated component matrix

Rotated Component Matrix [a]

	Component	
	1	2
EMP11	.701	
EMP13	.682	
EMP12	.677	
EMP14	.668	.307
EMP16	.668	
EMP8	.636	
EMP15	.580	
EMP6	.572	
EMP7	.489	.398
EMP5	.483	.356
EMP1		.757
EMP3		.739
EMP2		.734
EMP4		.700
EMP10		.561
EMP9		.496

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

However these sources do not go into the level of detail on what the components of internal and external employability might be as has been attempted in the present study. The results presented here would therefore appear to support the view that employability is a two-dimensional construct, while adding detail as to the understanding of how it may be composed. Thus while employability was initially conceived as being represented by one scale, the data gathered from this sample may suggest otherwise. On the one hand, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the whole scale is high, the scree plot

reveals a clear break after one component, and one factor alone explained over 36% of the variance. On the other hand. varimax rotation revealed a relatively 'clean' result when two factors were requested, although three convergences are still represented.

Table 10: Total Variance explained following Varimax rotation

Total Variance Explained

	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.086	25.536	25.536
2	3.298	20.615	46.151

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

6.3: Analysis of the two subscales

Further analysis was undertaken on the two subscales to determine the extent to which they were related aspects of the same construct, beginning with the attributes of the scales themselves. The sub-scales were interpreted as being represented by the components shown in table 9. Where two components loaded on one scale items then the highest loading was taken: this gave the same result as if loadings over .4 had been requested. Total scale sub-scores for component 1 (external employability, SPSS label: **tempe1**), and component 2 (internal employability, SPSS label; **tempi1**) were calculated. Subscale alphas, n, pearson correlation and the coefficient of determination are shown in table 11. This would appear to suggest that employability, as conceptualised in this study, is made up of two sub-scales, representing external and internal employability, which have a strong relationship to each other. Factor analysis of the external employability scale suggested the existence of two components which explained 29.7% and 24.8% of the variance respectively, although no 'clean' distinction could be identified. Factor analysis of the internal employability scale revealed one component, which explained 43.4% of the variance.

Table 11: Internal vs. External employability

	∀	n	*r*	sig	R^2
Total external employability (**tempe1**)	.8503	211			
			.718	.000	.52
Total internal employability (**tempi1**)	.8241	201			

6.4 Employability and Subjective Career Success: Factor Analysis

A source of concern during the research process was the suspicion that while individual employability, as conceived here, and subjective career success, as described in chapters 3 and 4, may be conceptually separate constructs, empirically they may be similar. According to De Vaus (2002:30), discriminant validity is based on the approach that if the concepts are really different then they will not correlate highly. In this case, taking the correlations of the whole-scale measures as presented in chapter 8, the two scales do show a strong zero-order correlation ($R = .532$, $p < .01$). As a further test, the two scales together were subjected to factors analysis using the procedure outlined in Pallant (2001:157). The correlation matrix (table 13) was inspected for correlation coefficients of .3 and above, which were found in a substantial number of correlations between items from the two separate scales. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .89, above the recommended value of .6 (Pallant 2001:161), the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value was significant, below .05. Using Kaiser's criterion five components were identified with an eigenvalue of 1 or more (8.072, 2.657, 1.610, 1.245, 1.072), which explained a total of 61.07% of the variance. The component matrix (table 12) reveals all scale items from both scales loading on one component, which explained 33.64% of the variance.

The first five items are all drawn from the career success scale, which also correspond to a separate component that in itself explains 11.072% of the variance. What is interesting is that if one traces the SCS items back to their source, then four out of the first five (CS5, CS7, CS4, CS6) and the next career success item on the list (CS8) are all drawn from one sub-scale from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). The two career success items with the lowest loadings (CS1, CS2) and just one of the first five (CS3) are from Nabi (1999).

Table 12: Component Matrix: factor analysis, EMP and SCS

Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
CS5	.718	-.512			
CS3	.717	-.369			
CS7	.712	-.503			
CS4	.695	-.548			
CS6	.659	-.380			
EMP1	.637		.456		
EMP12	.636		-.395		.303
EMP16	.631		-.322		
EMP14	.625	.350			
EMP7	.618			.373	
EMP10	.616				
CS8	.610				-.402
EMP2	.581		.496		
EMP5	.562			.341	
EMP3	.519		.498		
EMP15	.509	.392			
CS1	.500			.310	
EMP8	.492	.303			-.331
EMP9	.445				
EMP6	.421	.421			-.325
EMP11	.517	.545		-.375	
EMP13	.454	.465		-.461	
EMP4	.471		.515		
CS2	.374	-.364			.480

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.

Table 13 Correlation matrix

Landscape p[age correl;ation matrix

insert as sep file

whole page

Table 14: Varimax Rotation of Two Factor Solution for Combined Employability and Career Success items

Rotated Component Matrix [a]

	Component	
	1	2
CS4	.881	
CS5	.873	
CS7	.863	
CS3	.773	
CS6	.739	
CS8	.597	
EMP1	.528	.369
CS2	.522	
EMP10	.485	.385
CS1	.414	
EMP11		.751
EMP14		.685
EMP13		.650
EMP15		.635
EMP6		.595
EMP8		.559
EMP16	.345	.553
EMP5		.543
EMP2		.541
EMP7	.357	.522
EMP4		.511
EMP3		.509
EMP12	.414	.488
EMP9		.485

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Based on an analysis of the scree plot, and the components matrix presented above, it was decided to retain two components for further investigation. To aid in the interpretation of these two components, varimax rotation was performed. The rotated solution, presented here in table 14, reveals the presence of a relatively simple structure when only loadings above .3 are displayed. This interval has been selected to illustrate that while there are some overlaps, the first group of items load most strongly onto component 1, and the second group onto component 2, which explained 22.86% and 21.85% of the variance respectively. Thus it is suggested that while the present study's

measure of individual employability may be a related concept to subjective career success, it is in fact quite distinctive, and that further work to refine the scale items could further emphasise this distinctiveness.

Mapping the results presented in table 14 against the 4 x 4 matrix (Figure 3), An interesting division in the question items emerges. Employability scale items that score highest on component 1 (item 1: 'I have good prospects in this organisation because my employer values my personal contribution', and item 10, 'people who do the same job as me who work in this organisation are valued highly') both are located on the top line of the 4x4 matrix, and thus both relate to the internal labour market. The remainder of component 1 is made up entirely of the items from the subjective career success scale.

Table 15: Principal components analysis: subjective career success plus selected employability items

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.147	51.472	51.472	5.147	51.472	51.472
2	.914	9.142	60.614			
3	.841	8.408	69.022			
4	.835	8.353	77.375			
5	.625	6.251	83.625			
6	.558	5.582	89.208			
7	.419	4.188	93.396			
8	.287	2.871	96.267			
9	.217	2.170	98.437			
10	.156	1.563	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 16: Rotated component matrix: employability (less internal labour market)

Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
EMP14	.724		
EMP11	.688		-.470
EMP16	.654		
EMP12	.626	-.347	
EMP7	.626		.390
EMP15	.620		
EMP5	.614		
EMP13	.609	-.394	-.467
EMP8	.592		
EMP2	.585	.459	-.326
EMP6	.580		
EMP4	.525	.523	
EMP9	.497		
EMP3	.557	.594	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

When treated as 1 scale, component 1 (Cronbach's alpha = .88), and subjected to principal components analysis using SPSS, the presence of one component was revealed which explained 51.47% of the variance in what could potentially be a new measure of subjective career success. Repeating the procedure with component 2 did not produce as 'clean' or conclusive a result as for component 1. The alpha coefficient for the new sub-scale had been lower (.8657) than for the original scale. However, the component 1 scale ('subjective career success plus') may well be worth taking forward for further development beyond the scope of this project.

6.5 Conclusions: the employability scale

Research questions to be addressed in this chapter concerned the identification of the components of employability in the minds of the respondents, the psychometric properties of the scale(s), and to investigate to what extent there is overlap (redundancy) between the subjective career success scale and employability. These are addressed in order in this concluding section of the chapter.

RQ21: What components of employability are discernible in the respondents' perceptions of their own employability?
RQ23: What are the psychometric properties of the employability scale(s) derived from the samples' perceptions?

The preceding sections have emphasised that employability appears to be composed of two components, related to internal employability and external employability, these reinforcing the theoretical basis for the original scale's development (Hillage and Pollard 1998, Rajan 2000), and repeated in Van der Heijden's similar (but with lower internal reliability) scale. When the results are mapped against the 4 x 4 conceptual diagram (figure 4, above) the internal-external division is clearly visible, and the two components explained over 46% of the variance in the employability scale. Further factor analysis of the sub-scales failed to identify a 'clean' distinction, and this may be a profitable avenue for further research with a different sample.

RQ24: To what extent is there overlap (redundancy) between the subjective career success scale and employability?

An investigation to identify whether there was redundancy between the subjective career success scale and the employability main scale identified that two of the employability items (1,10) potentially had more relevance to career success in the context of the internal labour market, but that otherwise these were distinct constructs. Career success

relates to an individual's perceptions of their past and present, while employability relates to their perceptions of the future. Future research could be conducted using the extended career success scale, to incorporate the two 'employability' items. Extensions of this research could however incorporate a consideration of ambition, as it is believed that this may also be a related construct.

Overall, it is believed there may be considerable potential for developing a psychometrically sound measure of employability that is distinct from measures of subjective career success, based on the sixteen item scale developed for this study. For the purposes of this study the distinctiveness established here is considered satisfactory for an untested measure, and subsequent analysis is undertaken with this in mind. Chapter 7 proceeds with a preliminary analysis of findings from the quantitative study.

CHAPTER 7: PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS.

7.1 Introduction and Research Questions

This chapter has six substantial parts, the first (after this introduction) dealing with descriptive statistics for the respondents. Three of the remaining four sections of the chapter address a series of research questions, listed below. The third section of the chapter addresses research questions in relation to the study variables. The fourth part is an analysis of the 'CPD Engagement' items, and includes a consideration of an individual measure for engagement with CPD. The fifth substantial part considers the listed responses to the last two items on the questionnaire where members were invited to add comments in respect of their learning, or their development needs. Finally, the preliminary analyses are summarised, and some comparisons made with the available literature.

The study employed a cross sectional questionnaire survey, whose construction, development and rationale are described in chapter four. It should be noted that although the research hypotheses did not specifically mention gender or age as variables, the main descriptive literature (on CPD) reviewed (eg. Harris 1999, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c) had included some analysis by gender and age, and often job level or professional level. Similarly, the literature in relation to most of the other study variables had included analysis by gender or age or both, such as for employability (Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin 1999, and Van der Heijden 2002). Therefore, because this was the either the first time research had been undertaken on many of these variables, (eg employability), or it was one of the first pieces of research with a sample of UK Human Resources professionals (eg. subjective career success, professional commitment), or because there were pieces of research that would be directly comparable in some aspects (eg. for CPD, as listed above, plus Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) the results were considered to be intrinsically interesting in themselves, and more so when split by some other variable as suggested in the literature.

Some of the research issues were identified principally from the literature review as well as arising from the conclusions of the exploratory qualitative research. All of these were expressed as research questions, and this chapter specifically addresses the following. The first group of research questions relate to professional commitment. The theoretical background for these is discussed in chapter 2, with the scale construction in chapter 4.

RQ9: What level of professional commitment does this sample have?

RQ10: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

The second group of research questions to be tested by the survey relate to the respondent's perceived value of CPD. The theoretical basis and sourcing of these is discussed in chapter 3, and the selection and rationale for the survey items is described in section 4.6.4. The research questions included:

RQ13: To what extent do these respondents value CPD?

RQ14: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level or job level?

Subjective career success (SCS) was also included as a study variable, to give a perspective on the sample's career history to date and their perception of their present position, such as against their 'subjective timetable' (Arnold 1997). The background literature is analysed in chapter 3, and the construction of the scale is described in section 4.6.7. The research questions include:

RQ16: What does this sample believe about their subjective career success?

RQ17: Are there differences by gender, age, membership level qualification level or job level?

The scale of individual employability was an entirely new scale, and the sample's responses were considered interesting in themselves, expressed as the following research questions:

RQ20: What is this sample's self-perception of their employability (main scale)

RQ22: Are there differences in the main scale and sub-scales by age, gender, qualification level, professional level and job level?

The components of the employability scale were analysed in chapter 6.

The third main part of this chapter considers what sorts of CPD the sample engaged with, with a view to identifying what were the most popular strategies. At a later stage in the research this descriptive measure was developed into a measure of individual engagement with CPD Research questions in relation to CPD engagement include
RQ27: What are the most commonly reported means of updating for this sample?
RQ28: What are the differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

Although at first glance there may appear to be differences by gender, age, professional level or job level, these did not often reach statistical significance, and where for example mean scores are very similar comparison has been omitted for the sake of brevity. Nonetheless this stage of the research was firstly invaluable for consideration against similar, comparable studies, this being in the individual areas only: there is no known study that connects the same variables as this one. Secondly the results especially for some of the newly derived scales were interesting in themselves for a professional sample, and thirdly the analysis facilitated an understanding of the nature of the distributions and the identification of control variables utilised in the analysis of statistical relationships (correlation, multiple hierarchical regression) in chapter 8.

7.2 Descriptive Statistics: The Sample

The following section provides preliminary comment on and analysis of the descriptive statistics produced, by item or group of items as appropriate, as corresponding with the SPSS item number in the code-book. Item '1' was of course the respondent identification number. Below, the section numbers following '6.2' correspond to the questionnaire item number(s), thus '7.2.2/3' refers to items 2 and 3 on the questionnaire, which were also items 2 and 3 in the SPSS codebook.

7.2.2/3 Gender and Age

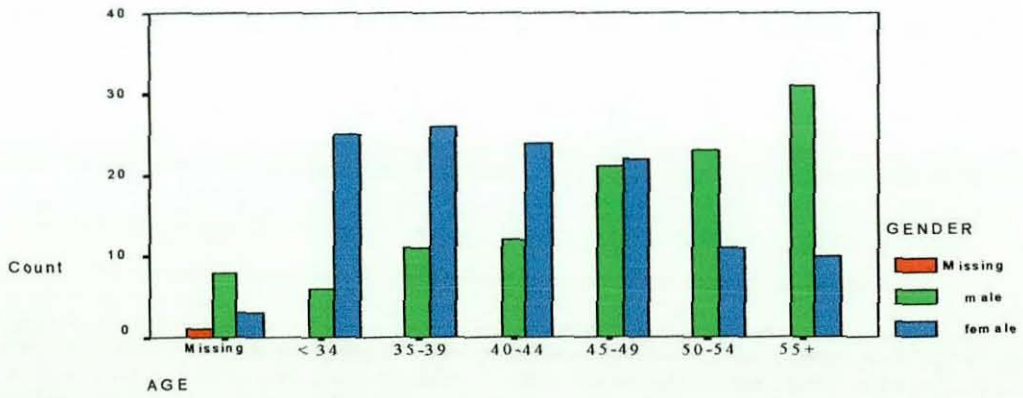
Respondents to this question were 47.9% male and 51.7% female. 222 respondents identified their age which ranged from 26 to 67 years with a mean of 45.2 and a standard deviation of 9.11. Males were coded '1', females '2', missing data '9'. The age

distribution was coded as in table 17 below, which also includes some basic descriptive statistics. The top and bottom pairs of groups (25-29 and 30-34, and 55-59 and 60+) were collapsed into two as the youngest group contained no males, and the oldest group only one female. It can be seen that diagrammatic representation of age

Table 17: Age distribution by gender

AGE RANGE	*N*	*%*	*Male n*	*Male %*	*Female n*	*Female %*
< 34	31	13.3	6	5.4	25	20.7
35-39	37	15.8	11	9.8	26	21.5
40-44	36	15.4	12	10.7	24	19.8
45-49	43	18.4	21	18.3	22	18.2
50-54	34	14.5	23	20.5	11	9.1
55 +	41	17.5	31	27.7	10	8.2
missing values	12	5.1	8	7.1	3	2.5

Figure 4: Age distributions by Gender

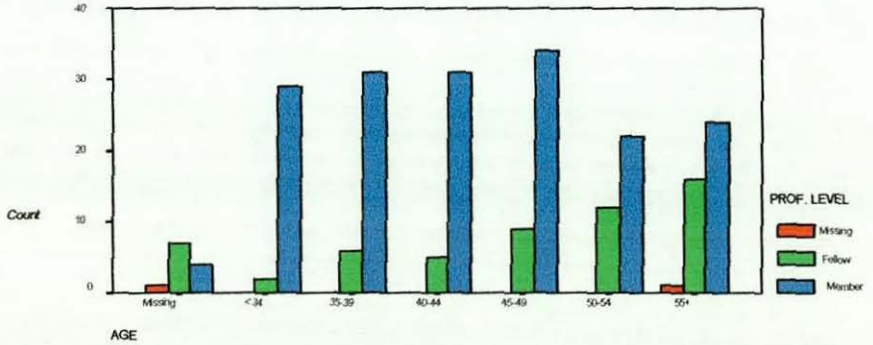


by gender (figure 4) produced a marked skew - the male sample are older, with an age range of 32-67 years, and a mean of 49.14 years, while the mean age for the women was 41.76 years although their age range is similar between 26 and 67 years. This supports the perception (Wilson 1995:28, Harris 2000a.3) of more women entering this professional group than men, and an aging male membership.

7.2.4/5. Professional Membership and Level of Membership

Item 5 on the questionnaire related to the professional level respondents had achieved. The sample was based on a listing of 973 Members and Fellows from the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch. Individuals with the title 'member' (MCIPD) have completed the full diet of professional examinations and have provided evidence to the Institute of further qualifying experience. Individuals with the title 'fellow' (FCIPD) have been members, and have provided further evidence of operating at senior level within the profession. The higher grade of membership (companion) were too few in the region to provide a sub-sample for analysis. Of the 232 respondents to the question about their level of membership (question 5), 57 (24.6%) were fellows (FCIPD) and 175 (75.4%) were members (MCIPD). Fellows had held this professional level for between 1 and 27 years, with a mean of 8.7 years (standard deviation 6.6). Members had held their professional level for between 1 and 32 years with a mean tenure of 7.8 years and a standard deviation of 6.6. Neither Jones and Fear (1994:49) nor Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69) distinguished between FCIPD and MCIPD respondents in their reported results. Harris (2000b:1) reported that for their male respondents in the 'corporate member survey' 28% were FCIPD and 72% MCIPD, with results of 14% and 86% for the females respectively.

Figure 5: Respondent age and membership level



The above table clearly shows that there are fewer Fellows overall, whose presence increases higher up the age range.

7.2.7/8 Qualification Level and Recency

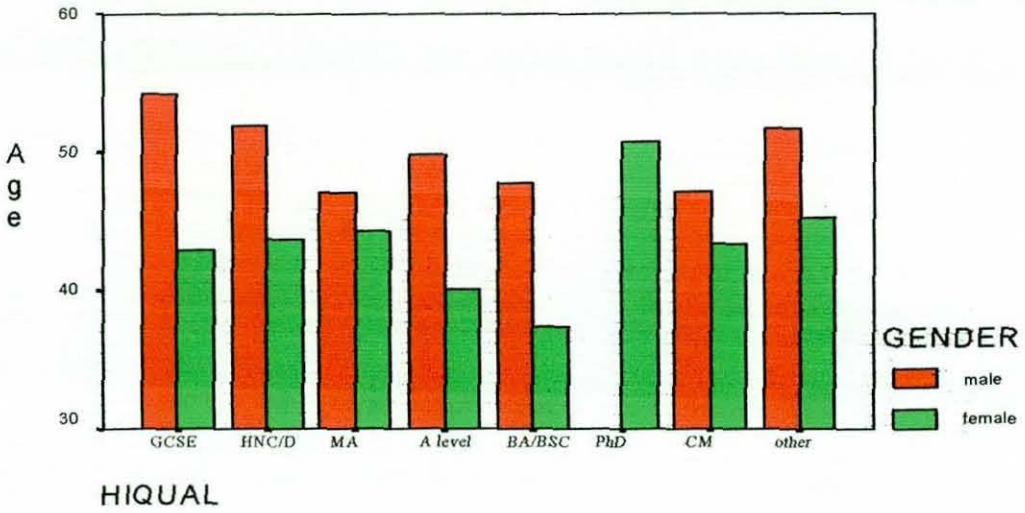
Respondents were asked to identify the highest level of qualification they had reached and how long ago this had been. It was suspected, based on Jones and Fear (1994) and Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998) that many older members had last engaged with qualification based updating some considerable time ago and done nothing since. It was hoped to ascertain to what extent this is a graduate profession - or higher? This was ascertained by collapsing the data gathered into those without degree level qualifications and those with, excluding HNC/D's and CMS/DMS qualifications from graduate level, but including MA/MBA and Doctoral qualifications. Data are presented below as 'degree' (1) and 'no degree ' (2).

Table 18: Highest Qualification by Age and Gender

	All		**males**		**females**	
Qualification	*f (all)*	*%(all)*	*f (m)*	*%(m)*	*f(f)*	*%(f)*
'Degree'	127	54.5	51	45.5	67	55.4
'No Degree'	106	45.5	61	54.5	54	44.6
.Totals			112		121	

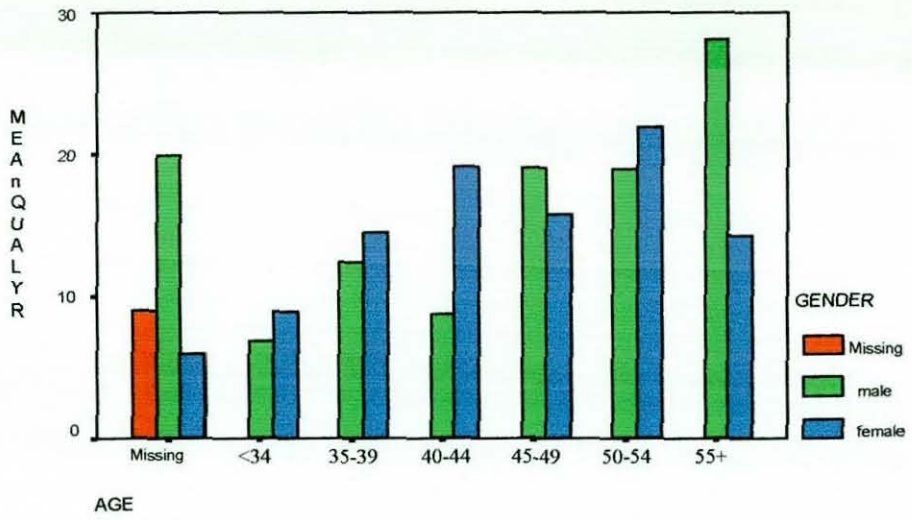
The two-level categorisation was introduced to facilitate the use of qualification level as a possible control variable, where data needed to be grouped more logically for analysis. Table 18 and figure 6 reveal a number of interesting features. For example, although there are many more women in the lowest qualification category, the men tend to be very much older (as they are all across the categories) but markedly so in the lowest, and the HND and Degree level categories. More women than men have degree qualifications or higher. Over time it would be reasonable to infer that the profession, as represented by this sample, is becoming increasingly feminised, with a greater proportion of graduate entrants with first degrees. As a summary comment therefore, while females may outnumber males in the higher qualification levels they are generally younger for each level. There is a trend within the Higher Education

Figure 6: Qualification category by gender and mean age



sector to offer a 'top- up' from the full-examination level of award in the managerial professions to allow candidates the opportunity to achieve an additional qualification at Master's level, and given the predominance of women at the lower membership grades one might reasonably expect the tendency for members with Master's degree to be male to be reversed. One weakness of the questionnaire design was that respondents were not asked to identify when they had taken their professional examinations, as in retrospect this would have been more relevant. Figure 7 (below) represents the length of time elapsed since the highest level of qualification ('qualification year') was attained by age and gender. The vertical axis represents the number of years since the respondents attained their highest level of qualification. The horizontal axis represents the age groups as depicted in the SPSS codebook. The bar chart reflects the greater average age of the male respondents, and shows that for many of these it is also a significant period of time since they engaged in qualification based updating, other than their professional training. Women in the higher age ranges show a lower period of time since their last qualification reflecting a tendency to return to higher level study later in their careers. However it is important to remember that this is not a profession where a degree is an essential pre-requisite for entry (Wilson 1995:33).

Figure 7: Qualification year by Age and Gender



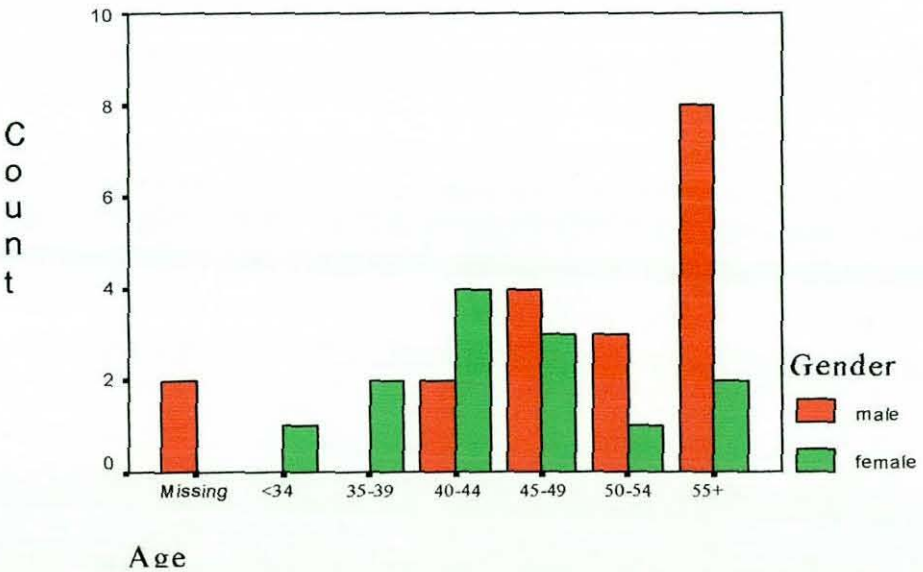
7.2.9 Job Title

A much greater range of job titles than expected were produced in the data, and the main value of this item is to enable the characteristics of particular occupational groups to be studied. For example, even at a data entry stage it became evident that many of the respondents identifying themselves as independent/external consultants (category 21) who were typically self-employed had particular issues with the questionnaire, due to the amount of missing items. Their particular issue appeared to be with the CIPD's policies on CPD, evidenced by their responses to items 95 and 96, and other comments written on the questionnaires, described later. A total of 17.95% (42) of the respondents identified themselves as independent consultants, these being split as 24 from Derby (this being 20.87% of the Derby respondents) and 18 from Nottingham or 15.13% of that sub-sample. Figure 8 illustrates the consultants' age and gender distribution. It illustrates the fact that most of the respondents thus identified are males in the highest age groups, who are likely to have the longest elapsed time since undertaking study. If this is considered alongside the fact that as external consultants, they are likely to be excluded from the sort of CPD opportunities

afforded by an organisation's training programmes, then this may well be a key issue for the CIPD's CPD strategy and policies.

That independent consultants might emerge as a group with particular issues was an unexpected outcome of the research, although subsequent (late 2002) publications by the CIPD (see eg. CIPD 2002c) were a response to nationwide concerns in this respect that the author had been unaware of earlier in the research. Unfortunately, the exploratory qualitative study had deliberately excluded self-employed consultants as the early focus of the research was confined to individuals employed in organisations,

Figure 8: Independent consultants by age and gender



otherwise 'early-warning' of this issue would have been received. Independent consultants were not identified as separate groups in most of the comparable studies (Jones and Fear 1994, Harris 1999, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Sadler-Smith et al. 2000), and only briefly in Harris 2000b, where they comprised 23% of respondents. Issues meriting further, future, investigation include:

- why are these individuals predominantly older men?
- why do these individuals work outside organisational boundaries?
- what are their development needs as distinct to the rest of the sample?

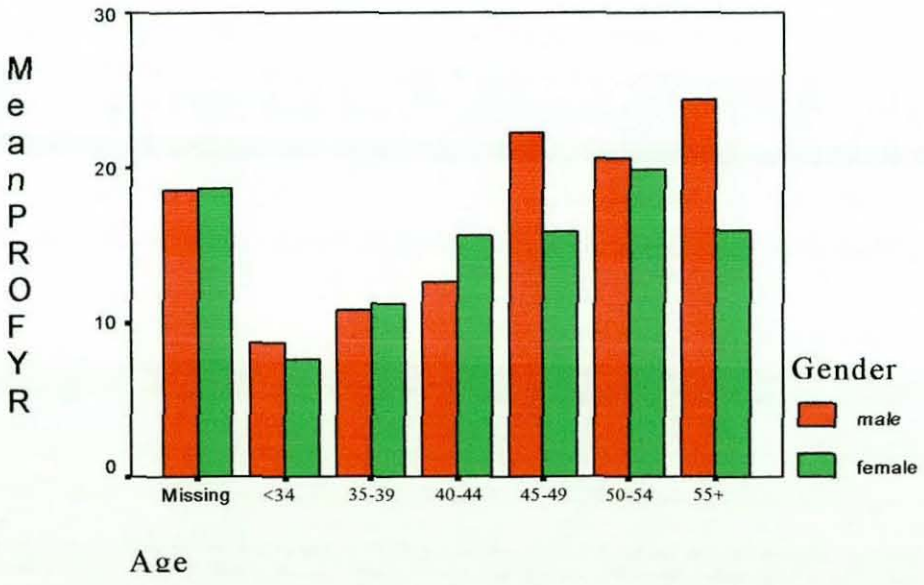
- do they have difficulty meeting the CIPD's CPD requirements and if so why?
- is the CIPD aware of their distinctive needs and how can it help them meet the CPD requirements?

- and is this category of members likely to become more or less numerous in the future?

7.2.10 The Length of Time in the Professional Field

As one might expect given the descriptive statistics produced so far (and the fact that older men are likely to have had greater continuity of employment), men show the greatest length of time served in the professional field and this rises for

Figure 9: Length of time in the field by age group and gender



the higher age categories, although women were represented in the highest age category (in fact the oldest female respondent was 67). There appears to be little difference between the sexes in the younger categories. Although this profession is stereotypically female, at the present time there are significant numbers of men represented in the sample, across all categories, and they have been there for some time.

7.2.11 Employment Status

Respondents were asked to identify their employment status, and as one might expect, the 'full time employed' (coded 1, 70.9% of all respondents) are in the majority, while a significantly greater proportion of women than men work part time, part time respondents being 8.1% of the total. More women self reported as being on a career break (1.3% of the total). As a comparison Harris (2000b) reported that 70% of their respondents were full time, 20% self employed, with women more likely to be in this latter category.

7.2.12 Work Organisation

Respondents were asked to identify whether they worked in public or private sector organisations, and whether these employed more or less than 500 employees, this categorisation following Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69). Although no problems were revealed by the pilot study, in practice the questionnaire design did not allow

Table 19: Work Organisation by sector

Sector/Size	Frequency	%
Public <500	8	3.4
Public >500	71	30.3
Private<500	37	15.8
Private >500	79	33.8
Missing data	39	16.7%

self-employed respondents space to accurately identify themselves. Some respondents hand-wrote 'not for profit' or 'voluntary sector' on their responses as supplementary information. This probably explains the relatively large missing data and also the incidence of 'public sector' organisations under 500 employees, which intuitively one would not expect to see. In fact, if one factors the 'missing data' in the present study into the 'public' side of the equation this matches exactly the pattern of similar studies.

Figure 10: Employing Organisation by Gender

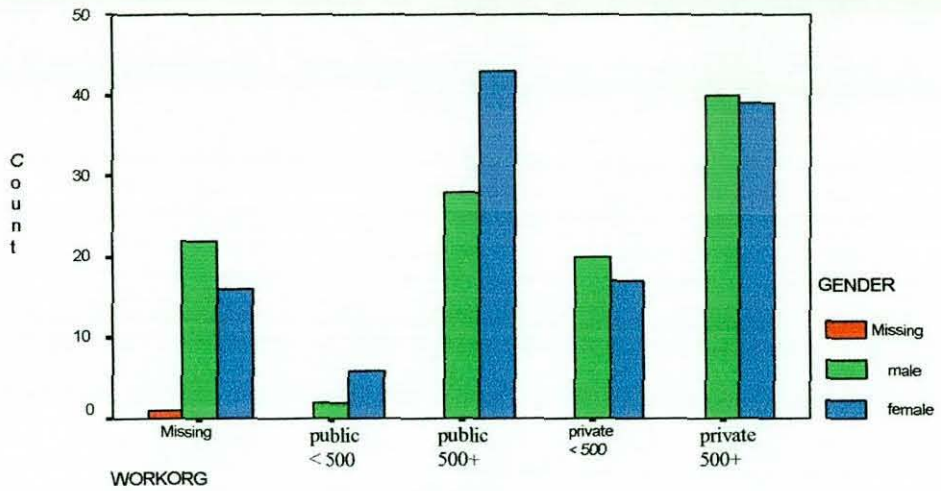
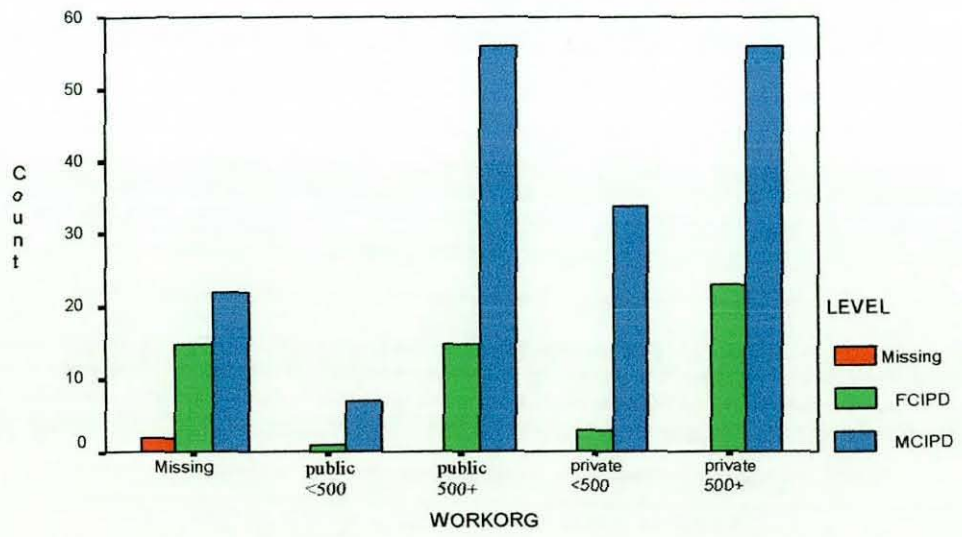


Figure 11: Organisation Type by membership level



Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69) reported the data differently but revealed a very even public/private split (49.8%/50.2% respectively), and also between organisations

of over and under 500 employees (51.4% and 48.6% respectively). Similarly Harris (2000b) reported that 'just over half' their respondents worked in the public sector.

From figure 10 it can also be seen that women are over-represented in large public sector organisations, and men in both types of private sector organisations and especially the smaller ones. When one also considers the respondents' membership level by size and type of organisation (figure 11), it can be observed that large private sector organisations have a substantially greater proportion of Fellows than the large public sector organisations, with the greatest imbalance being observed in the smaller private organisations. Does SME's anecdotally poor support for staff development extend to a lack of support for professional upgrading? Again, research focused on small and medium sized enterprises (SME's) may be a profitable extension in the future. The lack of clarity in the data gathered and the high incidence of missing data on this item is a shortcoming of this study, and because of these factors 'work organisation' was not considered further, nor was it included as a control variable. This was not considered critical as Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:73) found that, with a similar sample: 'there were no observed differences between public and non-public organisations or SME's and large organisations.'

7.2.13: Respondents' level in the Employing Organisation

Traditional 'Personnel Management' focused on operational matters and did not concern itself with a strategic decision making contribution. By contrast, the contemporary 'Human Resource Management' role focuses on 'Strategic HRM' which, according to Armstrong (1997:248):

' - aims to provide a sense of direction in an often turbulent environment so that organisational and business needs can be translated into coherent and practical policies and programmes.'

Question 13 aimed to find out to what extent this is true for the respondents in the present study, and how this breaks down by gender, organisational type or by membership level. Approximately one-third of all respondents irrespective of gender

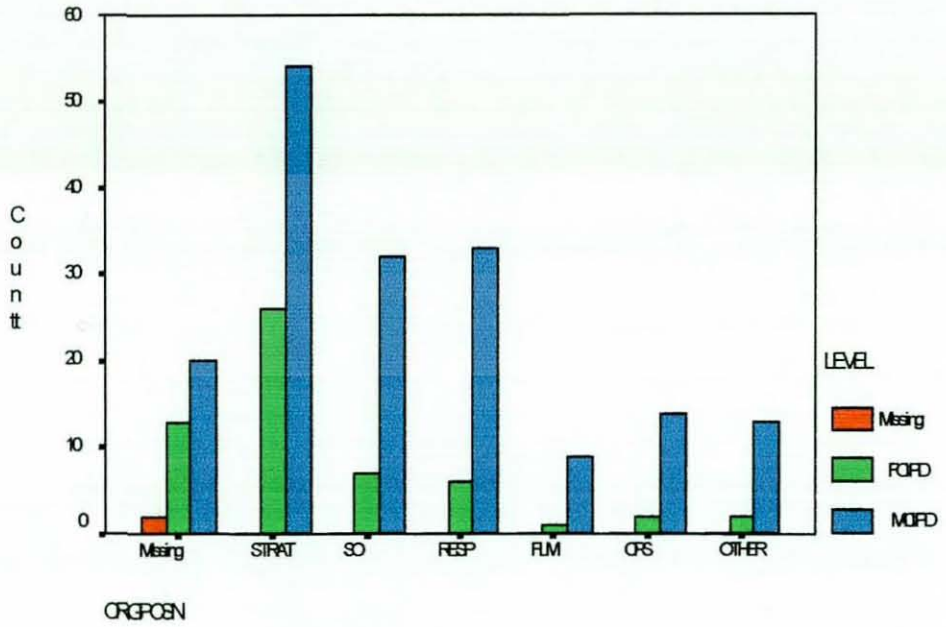
Table 20: Organisational Position by Gender

Position	Frequency (all)	% (all)	freq. male	% male	freq fem	% fem
Strategic	80	34.2	39	34.8	41	33.9
Senior	39	16.7	22	19.6	17	14
Influence	39	16.7	19	17	20	16.5
FLM	10	4.3	2	1.8	8	6.6
Operational	16	6.8	6	5.4	10	8.3
Other	15	6.4	6	5.4	9	7.4
Missing	35	15	18	16.1	16	13.2

claimed to operate at the highest level, and more than half fell in the top two categories. Table 20 (organisational position by gender) suggests men are in the majority at the highest levels although there ere still substantial numbers of women. There is a clear 'tail' of women in the lower job categories. More respondents were at the 'influence' level in large public sector organisations, which may reflect the nature of the decision making processes or a more hierarchical organisation. Subsequent examination of the correlations between the study variables revealed statistically significant correlations between organisational position and both employability and career success, but not for the other main study variables.

Figure 12 shows as one might expect the greatest concentration of 'Fellows' at the highest decision making level although they are to be found across all reported levels. Clearly some of the earlier results may be attributable to individuals falling to the temptation to 'talk-up' their job level in a self-report survey, but it is not necessarily safe to assume that all Fellows operate at the strategic level and many do not.

Figure 12: Organisational Position by Job level and Membership Level



Organisational position classification: (Fig. 8)

1:	'I have strategic decision making responsibility	(STRAT)
2:	'I am a senior officer in the organisation.....'	(SO)
3:	'I am responsible for the work of a number of colleagues...'	(RESP)
4:	'I have first line management responsibility.....'	(FLM)
5:	'My role in this organisation is primarily at an operational level.'(OPS)	
6:	'Other: what is your position?'	(OTHER)

7.3 Descriptive Statistics: The Measures

In the following sections we consider descriptive statistics on each of the main survey measures in turn, addressing a series of specific research questions in each case.

7.3.1 Professional commitment (PC)

This section addresses the following research questions:

RQ9: What level of professional commitment does this sample have?

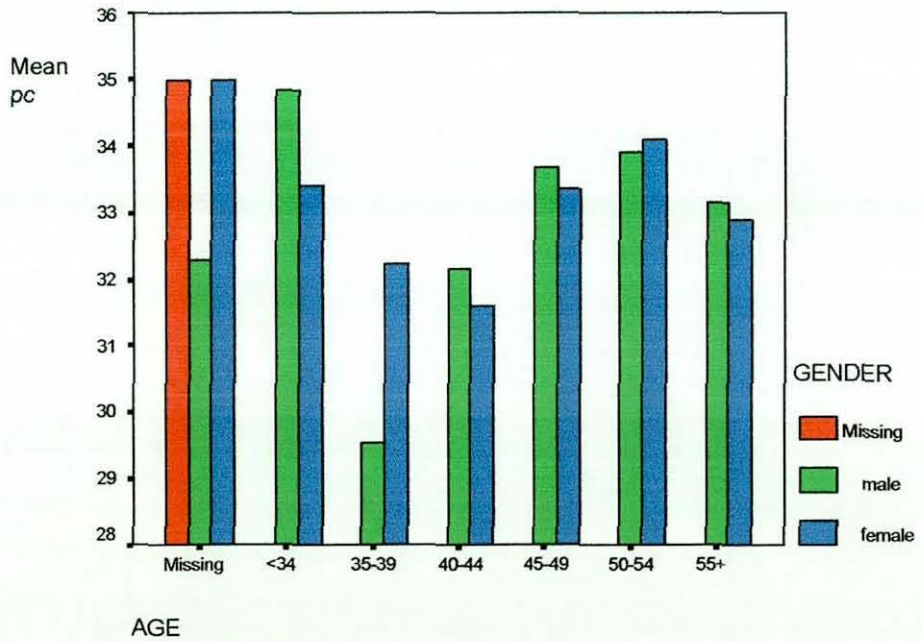
RQ10: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

Professional commitment was measured by a nine point scale, so the potential range was from 9 to 45. For the whole group, the mean score was 32.92 and the standard deviation 5.19, indicating scores clustered towards the upper end of the scale, this being supported by the negative skewness score. Similarly, a Kolmogorov-Smirnof Sig value of .009 indicates a 'violation of the assumption of normality ' (Pallant 2001:58), although Pallant also indicates that 'This is quite common in larger samples' (Page 58). With a reasonably large sample, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996:73) 'skewness will not make a substantive difference in the analysis'. The positive kurtosis score indicates a peaked distribution, which one would expect given the narrow interquartile range, the fairly narrow overall range, and the low standard deviation. The scale alpha for professional commitment was .80, with 221 respondents (94.4%). One hundred and two men and 118 women provided data for this variable (91.1% and 97.5% respectively). The mean scores were virtually identical (males: 32.96, females 32.86).

That the distributions have a strong negative skew is not a problem, rather it reflects, as Pallant (2001:59) suggests: 'the underlying nature of the construct being measured'. Here, most of the respondents self-reported relatively high levels of professional commitment, hence the negative skew. Figure 10 shows how the responses for professional commitment map across the eight age categories, by gender. This reveals that for this sample the younger female respondents reported higher levels of PC than those in mid career. By late career this had risen again, although there are

relatively fewer women in this age category, and those who have lasted until this stage have enjoyed greater career success (see below). This supports the view of Simpson and Altman (2000:190) that those women who were able to break through the 'glass ceiling' were individuals of exceptional calibre. Mid-career males show a dip in their mean PC scores (generation X influences?) but those men in the highest age category show the strongest PC of all. However considering the fairly narrow range of responses the findings here are more likely to support Hoff (2000:1433) who suggested that professional commitment levels remained reasonably consistent throughout an individual's career.

Figure 13: Mean Professional Commitment by Age and Gender



A two-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age and gender on professional commitment. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their age. Levene's test showed a non-significant result ($p \leq 995$), indicating no violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption. Despite an apparent difference revealed above between age group (35-39) and the other groups, there was no statistically significant main or interaction effect for age and /or gender,

and post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test did not reveal any significant differences between groups.

Data for professional commitment were also analysed by membership level. Fifty-two Fellows (FCIPD's) and 168 Members (MCIPD's) responded, this being a response rate of 91.2% and 96% respectively (94.02% overall). Selected SPSS output is shown in Figure 13 above, where 1 = FCIPD's and 2 = MCIPD's. The arithmetic mean scores are on the high side of the range, and slightly higher for the FCIPD's. The Fellows also show a narrower range of scores (smaller standard deviation, smaller range) although the distribution is less peaked (lower, actually negative, kurtosis score). The Members' scores are more spread (higher standard deviation and range) and yet more negatively skewed towards the upper end. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for the two grades of membership. There was no significant difference: t (218) = 1.306, $p \leq .193$. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared = .009).

Table 21: Professional Commitment by membership level

	FCIPD (1)	MCIPD (2)
N	57	175
missing data (%)	8.8%	4.0%
Mean	33.74	32.65
Std. Deviation	4.41	5.41
range	18.00	27.00
interquartile range	6.00	7.75
skewness	.093	-.421
kurtosis	-.662	.127

Figure 14: Mean Professional Commitment by Age and Membership Level

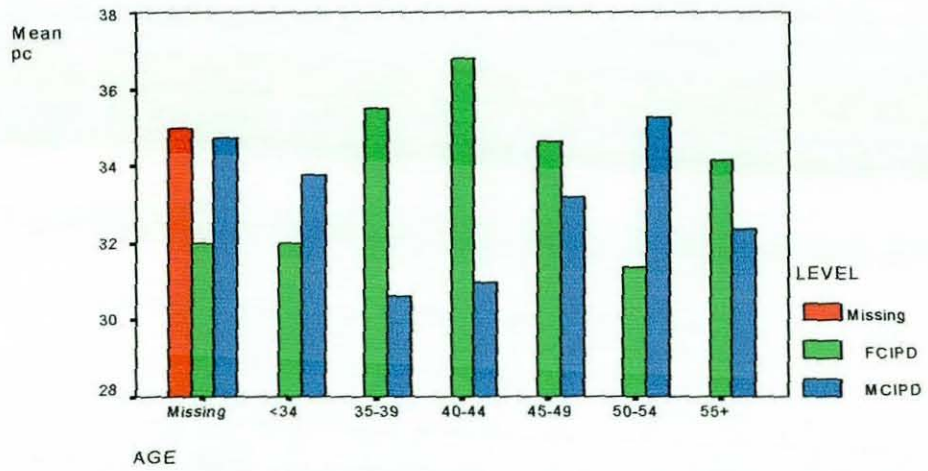
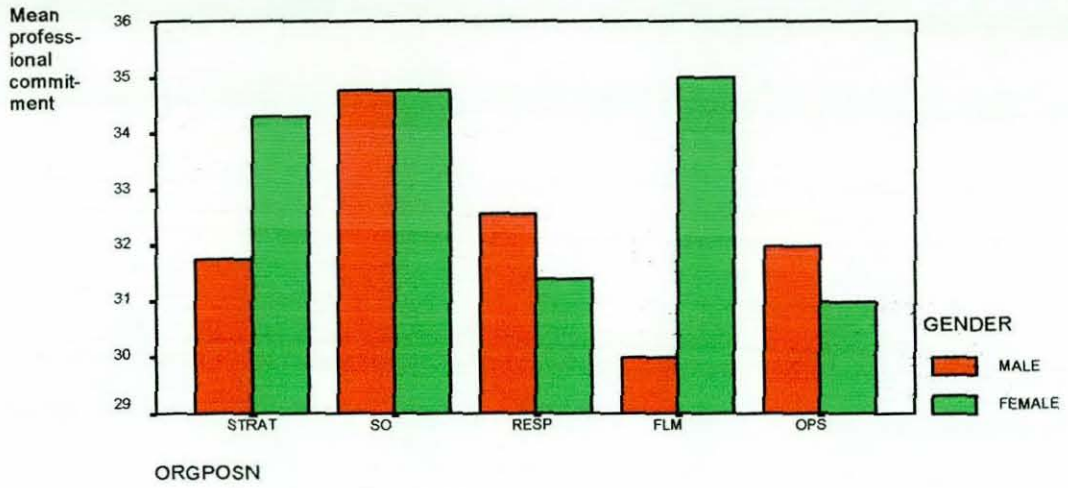


Figure 14 illustrates how PC maps across the six age categories, by membership level (1=FCIPD, 2=MCIPD). It shows that for this sample PC is variable across the age range, as Fellows show a peak in mid-career - curiously, at the same point Members show the lowest scores. A two way between groups ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of age and membership level on professional commitment. Subjects were divided into six categories according to their age. There was no statistically significant main effect for level [F (1, 198) = 1.94, $p \leq .166$], or age [F (5, 198) = .13, $p \leq .985$]. There was a statistically significant interaction effect [$F(5,198) = 2.88$, $p \leq .015$, with a moderate effect size (eta squared = .068). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the differences between groups did not reach statistical significance.

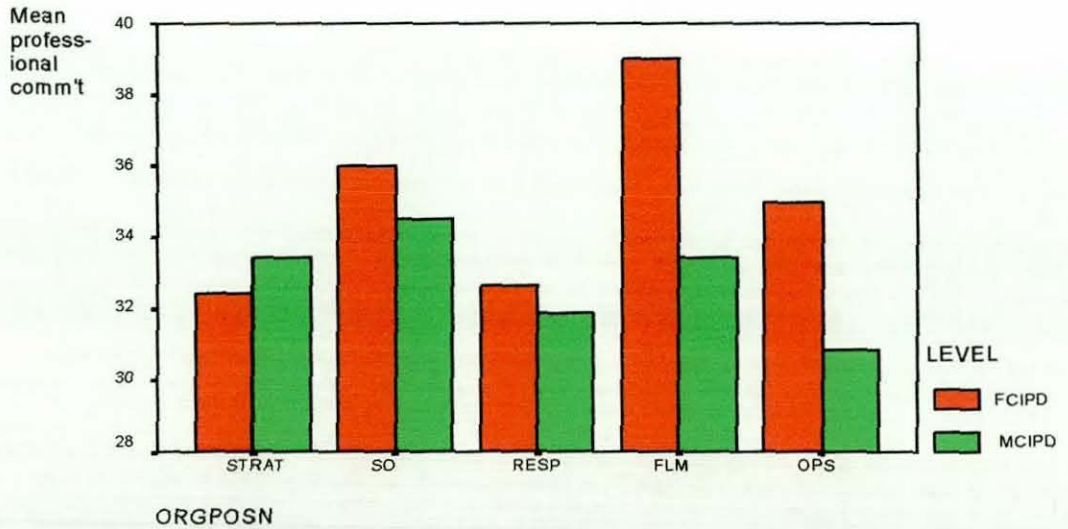
Responses to the professional commitment scale were also analysed by organisational position and gender, these being presented in figure 14, using the same categorisation as previously. There appear to be substantial gender differences at the 'first line manager' level, often regarded as a key position of responsibility. These were explored further using a two-way analysis of variance. There was no statistically significant main effect for organisational position [F(4, 170) = 1.953, $p \leq .104$), or gender [F (1,170) = 1.023, $p \leq .313$], nor was there a statistically significant interaction effect [F (4, 170) = 1.432, $p \leq .226$].

Figure 15: Professional commitment by organisational position and gender



Repeating the analysis of professional commitment for organisational position and level of membership, results are presented below in figure 16.

Figure 16: Professional commitment by organisational position and level of *membership*



Here it can be seen that some of the highest levels of professional commitment are from Fellows (the highest level of membership in the survey), who are in first line

management positions. It is possible that these may be keen to pursue their professional careers and have taken the trouble to upgrade their membership at an early stage. Fellows show higher professional commitment at all levels (though slight in some groups) except the strategic level. A two-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of organisational position and professional level on professional commitment. the main effects for organisational position [$\underline{F}$ (4, 170) = 1.471, $\underline{p} \leq .213$] and professional level [$\underline{F}$ (1,170) = 2.260, $\underline{p} \leq .478$] did not reach statistical significance; nor did the interaction effect. [$\underline{F}$ (4,170) = .878, $\underline{p} \leq .478$].

Data for professional commitment were also analysed by qualification level, as at this exploratory stage it was not known whether possession of a degree would affect PC or not. A two-way ANOVA revealed that the main effect for qualification barely reached statistical significance [$\underline{F}$ (1,216) = 3.037, $\underline{p} \leq .083$], and the main effect for gender and the interaction effect did not. A further two-way ANOVA for age and level of qualification revealed a moderately significant effect for qualification level [$\underline{F}$ (1,198) = 3.381, $\underline{p} \leq .067$].

7.3.2 Value of CPD (CPDV)

This section addresses the following specific research questions:

RQ13: To what extent do these respondents value CPD?

RQ14: Are there differences by age, gender, membership level or job level?

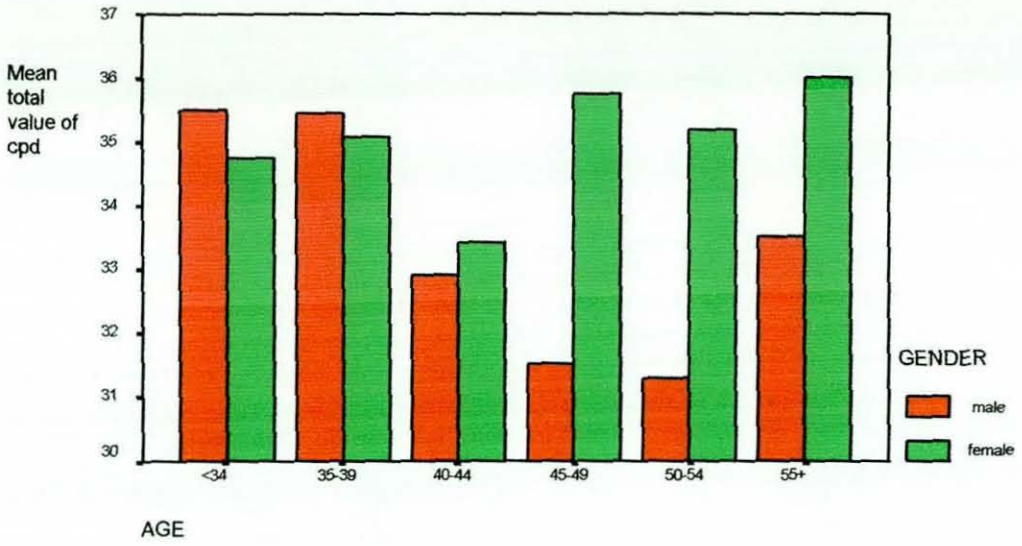
Basic descriptive statistics are presented in table 22. The values are negatively skewed (0.899), and peaked (kurtosis = 1.996). An independent samples t-test

Table 22: Value of CPD by Gender

	MALES (1)	FEMALES (2)
N	106	114
Missing data (%)	5.4%	5.8%
Mean	32.61	34.90
Std. deviation	7.55	5.09
Range	36	29
Interquartile range	9.00	5.00
Skewness	-.774	-.463
Kurtosis	1.116	1.535

was conducted to assess whether the differences by gender were statistically significant. Using Levene's test for equality of variances the significance level was found to be .000, therefore the data 'violate the assumptions of equal variance'. Thus further analysis was undertaken with equal variances not assumed. The 2-tailed significance value is .01, below the normal cut-off of .05, therefore it can be concluded that in this case there is a significant difference in the mean scores for male and female respondents. The magnitude of the differences was quite large (eta squared = .3013) and thus 30% of the variation in CPDV scores is explained by gender. The male scores were more strongly negatively skewed indicating values clustering towards the upper end. Overall the results suggest that women have a stronger commitment to the value of CPD.

Figure 17: Mean Value of CPD (CPDV) by Age and Gender



A two-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of gender and age on the value of CPD (CPDV). At the .05 significance level Levene's test for homogeneity of variances (Sig. = .010) showed a violation of homogeneity and this analysis proceeded with a more stringent significance level of .01. Subjects were divided into six groups by age. There was no statistically significant main effect for gender [F (1, 197) = 2.782, p ≤ .097], or age [F(5,197 = .621, p ≤ .684], or interaction effect [F(5,197 = .831, p. ≤ .529). Figure 17 shows how the responses for 'Value of CPD' (CPDV) map across the age categories by gender. The distribution suggests that women consistently and continuously place a higher value on CPD throughout their careers. The scores for the male respondents decline as they progress through the age groups (except for the last group which is still lower), although it started out higher than women's scores in two out of the bottom three age categories. This declining interest in CPD as one's career progresses for the male respondents is worthy of further investigation. This is similar, if not a close match, to Sadler-Smith and Badger's (1998:71) findings that commitment to CPD was 'lowest among the older males', and that newer members gave a higher value to CPD, although here, the highest value is given to CPD by the oldest female respondents.

Data for CPDV were also analysed by membership level and selected results appear below in table 23. Both categories of membership covered the full range of possible values (9 to 45) on the scale responses. The means were very similar, although the standard deviation was higher for the Fellows the interquartile range was actually a little narrower, indicating more outlying values in the 'tails'. The FCIPD's response

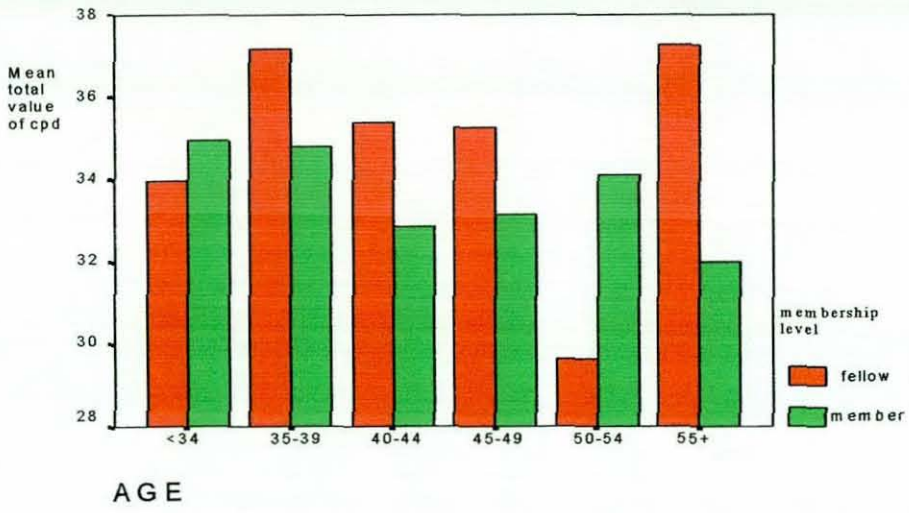
Table 23: Value of CPD by Membership Level

	FCIPD (1)	MCIPD (2)
N	57	175
Missing data (%)	5.3%	5.1%
Mean	34.13	33.69
Std. Deviation	7.57	6.10
interquartile range	6.50	7.00
skewness	-1.334	-.652
Kurtosis	2.65	1.51

distribution was both more negatively skewed and more peaked. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the CPDV scores for members and fellows. Using Levene's Test for Equality of Variances (Sig. = .180) equal variances were assumed. There was no significant difference in the scores for the members and Fellows (see above), t (218) = .43, $p \leq .67$. The magnitude of the differences was extremely small (eta squared = .0008).

Figure 18 reveals some features of the way the CPD-V scores map across the age range by membership level. While the importance attached to the value of CPD remains reasonably consistent (and relatively modest!) across the age groups for MCIPD's, for the higher membership category it shows a greater increase in late career, although one must remember that this is for a small number of respondents. If these are FCIPD's in late career then it would be reasonable to infer that they are also in senior positions. It may be that what is actually being measured here is their

Figure 18: Mean Value of CPD by Age and Membership Level



attitude to the value of CPD not just for themselves but for their subordinates, or for other members of the profession generally. They may well, as more senior members see themselves as custodians of professional standards. A two way between groups ANOVA was not undertaken, as there was no theoretical reason for doing so: Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69) found no significant main or interaction effects on the value of CPD for age, gender or level in the employing organisation. They also found (page 70) that: 'the value respondents assign to CPD is not related to the size or sector of the organisations surveyed.'

Figure 19 provides the distribution across the organisational position levels for the perceived value of CPD, by gender, and reveals that women place a higher value on CPD at all levels except the operational one. The gender differences are most noticeable at the strategic and first line manager levels. A two way Analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of gender and organisational position on the perceived value of CPD, but neither the main effects for organisational position [$\underline{F}$ (4, 172) = .413, $\underline{p} \leq .799$] or gender [$\underline{F}$ (1, 172) = 1.581, $\underline{p} \leq .210$], or the interaction effect {F (4, 172) = .929, $\underline{p}$ = reached statistical significance.

Figure 19: Perceived value of CPD by organisational position and gender

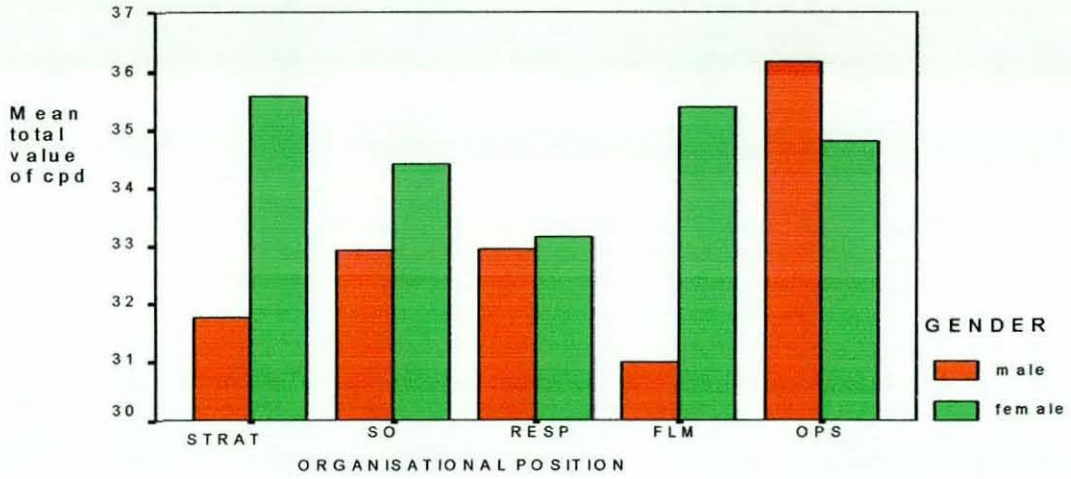
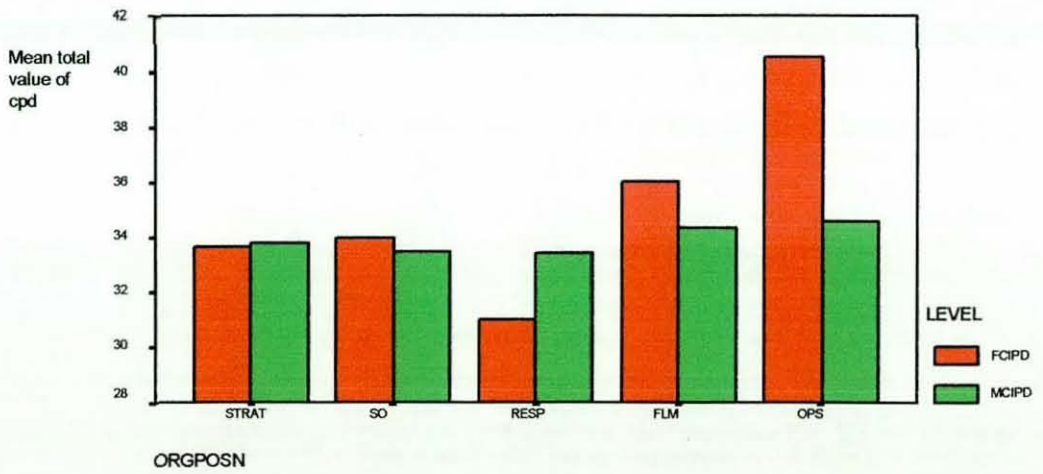


Figure 20: Perceived value of CPD by organisational position and membership level

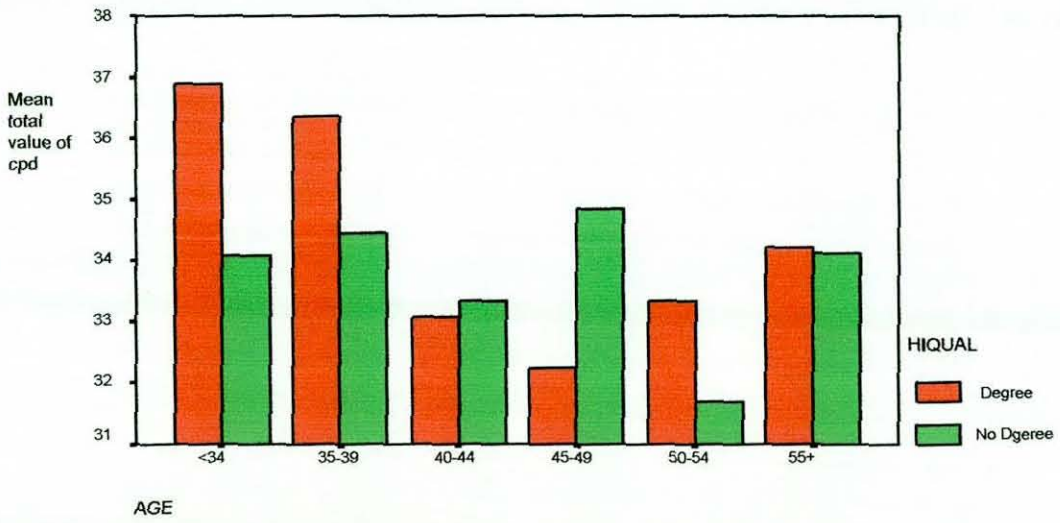


As revealed in figure 20 (CPDV by organisational position and membership level) the highest value is given to CPD by FCIPD's operating at the most junior level. Across the rest of the categories the differences are minor, and across the whole distribution main effects (two way ANOVA) for organisational position [$\underline{F}$ (4, 172) = .941, $\underline{p} \leq .442$] and professional level [$\underline{F}$ (1, 172) = .353, $\underline{p} \leq .553$], and the interaction effect [$\underline{F}$ (4, 172), = .580, $\underline{p} \leq .678$] did not reach statistical significance. Sadler-Smith

and Badger (1998:69) found, using the same measure of CPDV, that no statistically significant main or interaction effects were observed, suggesting 'that the value accorded to CPD by respondents is high irrespective of age, gender or job level'.

Further analysis was undertaken by qualification level. Although none of the related literature appeared to have considered the impact of whether being a graduate would affect one's attitude to CPD, the well- qualified sample in the exploratory qualitative study had appeared to have a positive orientation to CPD, which intuitively one might expect. Figure 21 shows the perceived value of CPD by age and qualification level

Figure 21: Perceived Value of CPD by age and qualification level



This appears to reveal that younger graduates appear to place the greatest value on CPD, which declines rapidly in mid-career, at which points the non-graduates place a much higher value, perhaps as a 'catch-up' strategy. However, a two-way ANOVA revealed that the main effects for age [$F(5,197)$, = 1.064, $p \leq .382$] and qualification level [$F(1,197)$, = .403, $p \leq .526$], and the interaction effect [$F(5,197)$, = .775, $p \leq .775$] did not reach statistical significance.

Figure 22 shows the perceived value of CPD by organisational position (job level) and qualification level, where qualifications are represented by degree/no degree.

Figure 22: Perceived value of CPD by organisational position and qualification level

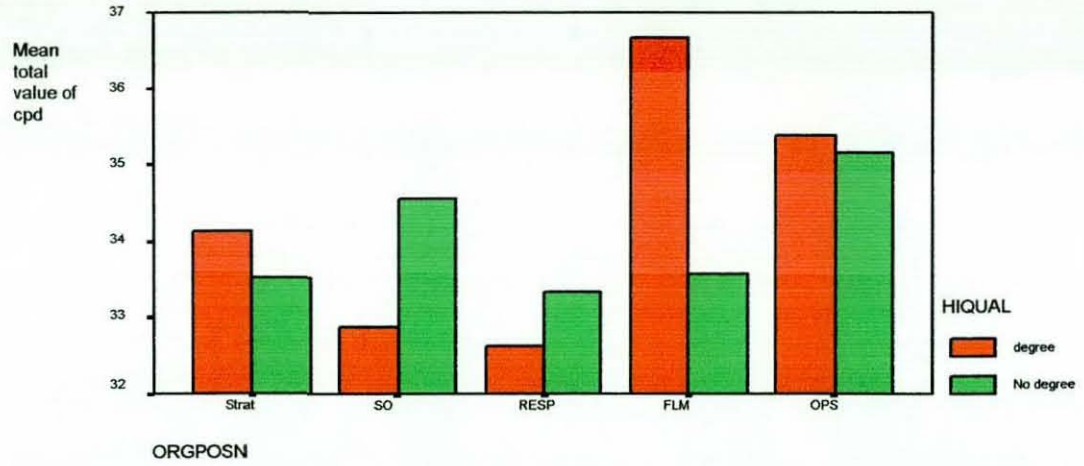


Figure 22 appears to suggest that although there is little difference across most of the groups, graduates at 'First Line Manager' level appear to place a much higher value on CPD. However a two way ANOVA revealed that the main effect for qualification level [F (1, 172), = .055, $p \leq .814$], the main effect for organisational position [F (4, 172) = .439, $p \leq .781$], and the interaction effect [F (4, 172), = .354, $p \leq .841$] did not reach statistical significance.

7.3.3 Employability

This section addresses the following specific research questions:

RQ20: What is this sample's self perception of their employability (main scale)

RQ22: Are there differences in the main scale and sub-scales by age, gender, qualification level, professional level and job level?

This was a sixteen-item scale with a possible range between 16 and 80. Table 24 below provides selected descriptive statistics, and scale composition is discussed in detail in chapter 6. The development of a scale of employability arose as a matter of necessity as no suitable measure had been uncovered by the time the fieldwork was undertaken. One scale was uncovered at a later stage (Van der Heijden 2002:44) that was based on a similar systematic approach and which also accounted for internal and

Table 24: Employability (and sub-scales): selected descriptive statistics by gender

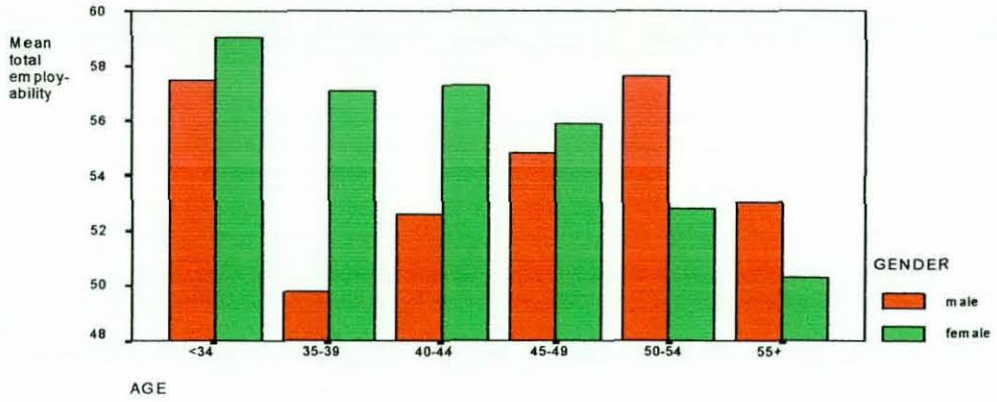
	Total Employability		Total (tempe1) External Employability		Total (tempi1) Internal Employability	
	male	female	male	female	male	female
N	112	121	98	112	93	107
Missing data (%)	17.0	11.6	12.5	7.4	17.0	11.6
Mean	54.39	56.57	33.39	34.63	21.13	22.06
Std. Deviation	8.84	8.78	6.17	5.93	4.06	3.88
Range	40.0	40.0	30.0	27.0	24	20
Interquartile range	12.5	12.0	10.0	7.75	5.0	5.0
Skewness	-.213	-.229	-.343	-.294	-.631	-.539
Kurtosis	-.190	-.193	.185	-.306	1.526	.622

external labour market factors, for which a scale alpha of 0.68 was reported. The alpha coefficient for the present study for the whole sixteen item scale was 0.88, considered high for an untested measure. Chapter 6 discussed the composition of the whole scale and that it is actually composed of two sub-scales, these being external and internal employability. External employability (tempe1) is represented by a ten item scale which had an internal correlation coefficient of .85, while the six-item internal employability scale (tempi1) had an internal correlation coefficient of .79. In this sub-section descriptive statistics are presented for the whole scale first, then each of the two sub-scales in turn. However in chapter 8, where statistical relationships between variables are considered, the principal concern is for the main 16-item scale.

In the present research, 233 respondents (83% males and 88.4% females) completed the 16-item scale. Responses showed a mean in the upper half of the range (55.58), the standard deviation 8.84, with a fairly wide range of responses. The kurtosis value

of -.206 indicated many cases in the extremes (Pallant 2001:54), and the distribution revealed a modest negative skew. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (Sig = .200) indicates a normal distribution as it is more than .05 (Pallant 2001:58).

Figure 23: Mean Total Employability by Age and Gender



Splitting the data by gender (table 24, above) revealed no real differences across the measures, with the exception of the kurtosis (peakedness) of the external employability distribution. Female respondents gave a higher average score although the measures of dispersion were very similar (variance, standard deviation) as was the interquartile range, skewness and kurtosis. In fact, the whole distribution was very similar in almost every respect including normality, and even though it may appear that the women's scores were always just a little higher overall, this is not that likely to be the case in the wider population from which the sample was drawn. The degree of similarity was confirmed by an independent samples t-test (sig = .082), and the magnitude of the difference in the means was modest (eta squared =-.152).

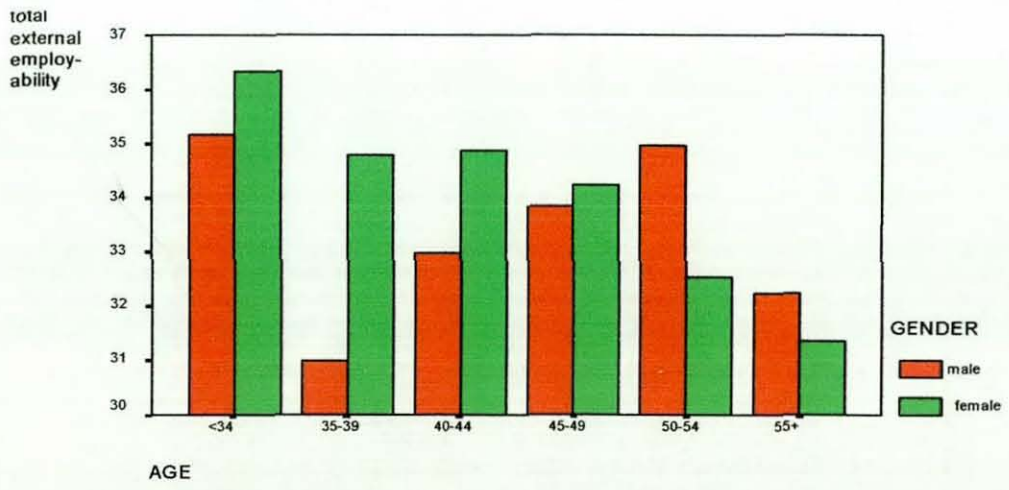
Overall the high scores suggest that this is a sample with a fairly bullish outlook on their employment prospects with the women most confident of all, however further analysis of gender by age (Fig. 23, above) reveals some potentially interesting results. Having said above that using some measures the distributions by gender look very similar, analysis by age *and* gender reveals that they may not be. What is apparently remarkable in Figure 23 is the way women's self perceptions of their employability decline with age, from the very highest scores of all early in their careers. Does this suggest perhaps that as they age they perceive the need to hang on to the jobs they

have as they perceive relatively fewer options? Male respondents' perceptions of their employability peak in their early 50's (again surprising, this was intuitively expected to be earlier), then decline. The very low scores for some male respondents may be worthy of further investigation, notably in groups 2 and 3 (35-39, 40-44), these representing periods when one might reasonably expect them to be very upbeat about their *developing* careers. Overall while one might expect self-perceptions of employability to decline as respondents age, the extent to which this happened for the female respondents was surprising, as were the low scores for the early mid career males.

A two-way betwen groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age and gender on perceived employability, as measured by the full sixteen item scale developed for this study. There was no statistically significant main effect for age ($p \leq .249$) or gender ($p \leq .407$), or an interaction effect ($p \leq .119$).

Further analysis was undertaken on the two sub-scales for employability, which are discussed further in chapter 6. Figures 24 and 25 suggest that it is possible that

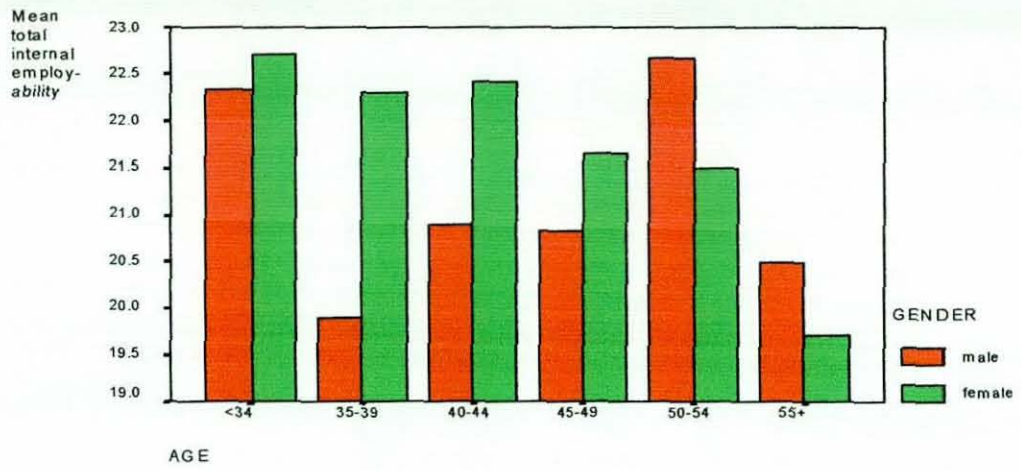
Figure 24: Mean Total External Employability (tempe1) by Age and Gender



women score higher early in their careers on external employability than on internal employability, but that mid-career males may perceive themselves as scoring higher

on internal employability. This is possibly due to their adherence to a belief in traditional, rational, hierarchical careers in internal labour markets.

Figure 25: Mean Total Internal Employability (tempil) by Age and Gender



Two-way between groups analyses of variance were conducted to ascertain whether the (visually) apparent differences in figures 24 and 25 were statistically significant. First, on the impact of gender and age on total external employability (tempe1), subjects were divided into six groups according to their age. Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (sig. = .315) suggested that the assumption of homogeneity of variances had not been violated. There was no statistically significant main effect for age [F(5, 187) = .499, $p \leq .399$], or gender [F(1,187) = 1.033, $p \leq .490$], nor was there a statistically significant interaction effect (gender*age: sig. .473). A two way ANOVA for total internal employability (tempil) also revealed no violation of homogeneity of variances (sig. = .292), no significant main effect for gender [F (1, 177) = .688, $p \leq .408$] or age [F (5, 177) = 1.006, $p \leq .415$], and no significant interaction effect (age*gender: sig. = .559). Pallant suggests (2001:66) that:

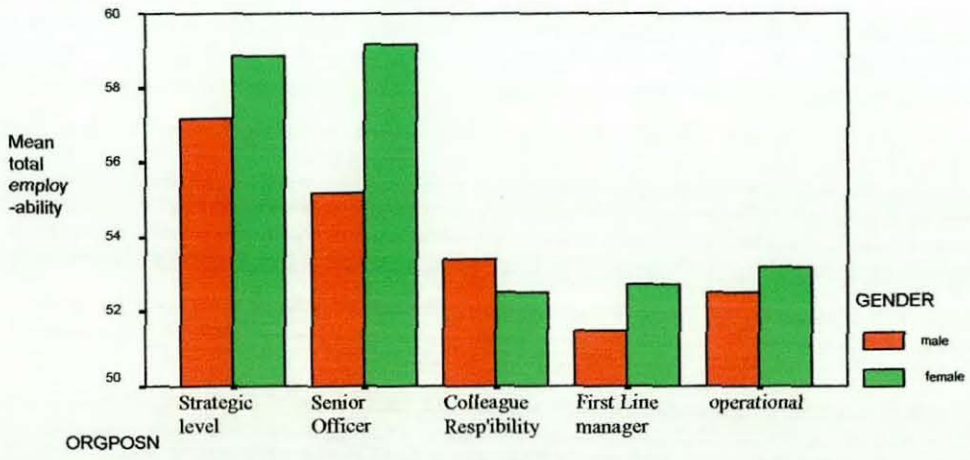
' - sometimes what looks like a dramatic difference is only a few scale points.'

Splitting the data again by membership level revealed little difference in responses between the two categories. Forty-seven Fellows and 153 members responded to this group of items, reflecting response rates of 82.5% and 87.4 % respectively. That the response rate was lower than expected is attributable to the non-responses from self

employed or unemployed members the majority of whom were Fellows. Both categories of membership showed very similar arithmetic means (55.64 and 55.53 respectively). The MCIPD's reported a higher standard deviation, a more negatively skewed distribution towards the high values, and a wider range of values. The youngest Fellows, whom one might intuitively expect to be enjoying significant early career success (see below), have the highest self-perceived employability. The scores for the MCIPD's are fairly consistent through their career, whereas the scores for the older FCIPD's decline from the early 'high'. Van der Heijden (2002:53) noted that (for a very different sample): '- the older the employee, the lower his or her employability.' Correlation between age and employability is discussed in chapter 8. When the external and internal employability sub-scales were considered by membership level, there were no particular attributes of the results that suggest a need for particular investigation. In any case, as there are only small numbers of respondents (notably FCIPD's) in some of the age categories the data must be treated with some caution.

Examination of mean total employability by organisational position and gender revealed some potentially interesting attributes of the distribution, as presented in figure 26. Respondents at the highest level reported the highest employability.

Figure 26: Mean total employability by Organisational Position and Gender



A two-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of organisational position and gender on mean total employability. There was a

statistically significant main effect for organisational position only [F (4, 164) = 3.31, p ≤.012], and the effect size was moderate (eta squared = .075). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the 'strategic' group 1 (M = 58.09, SD = 7.82) was significantly different from that for the 'colleague responsibility' group 3 (M =52.92, SD =9.47). There were no significant differences between any of the other groups. This finding reinforced the need to include organisational position as a control variable later in the study.

Figure 27: Employability by Organisational position and membership level

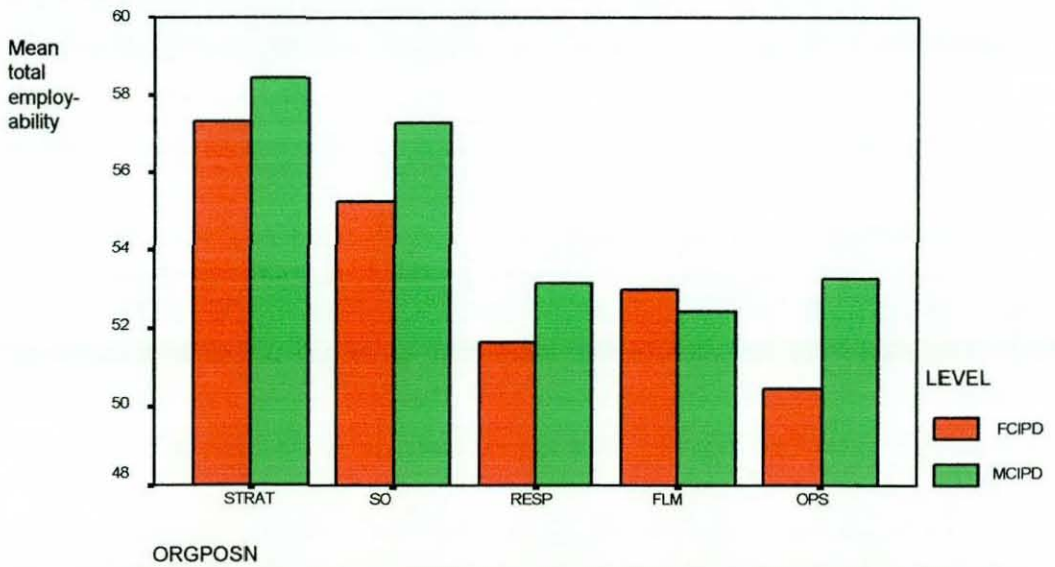


Figure 27 illustrates how mean total employability maps against the five organisational levels, by membership level. Self perceived employability rises as one rises up the organisation, with only minor differences between the membership levels, although it is evident that more senior (by organisational position) MCIPD's feel more employable. Figure 28 presents the same information, for the external employability scale, followed by figure 29 for the internal employability scale.

Figure 28: Total external employability by professional level and organisational level

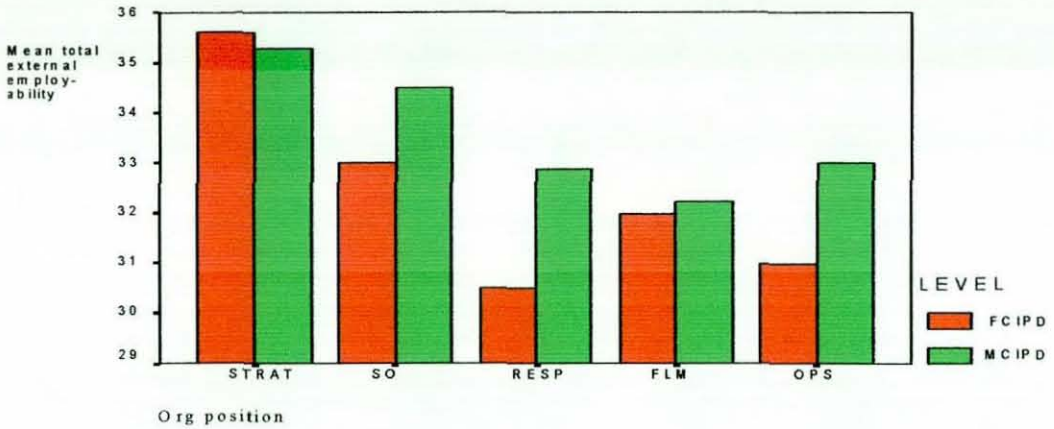
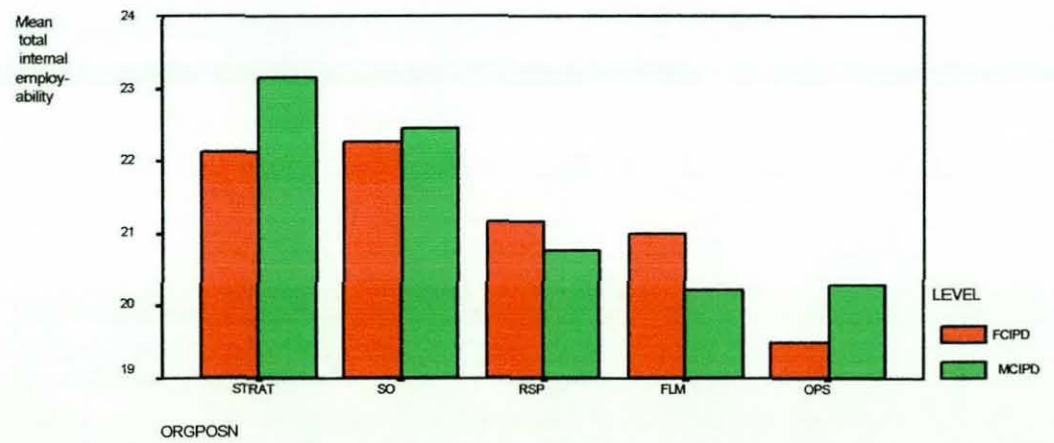


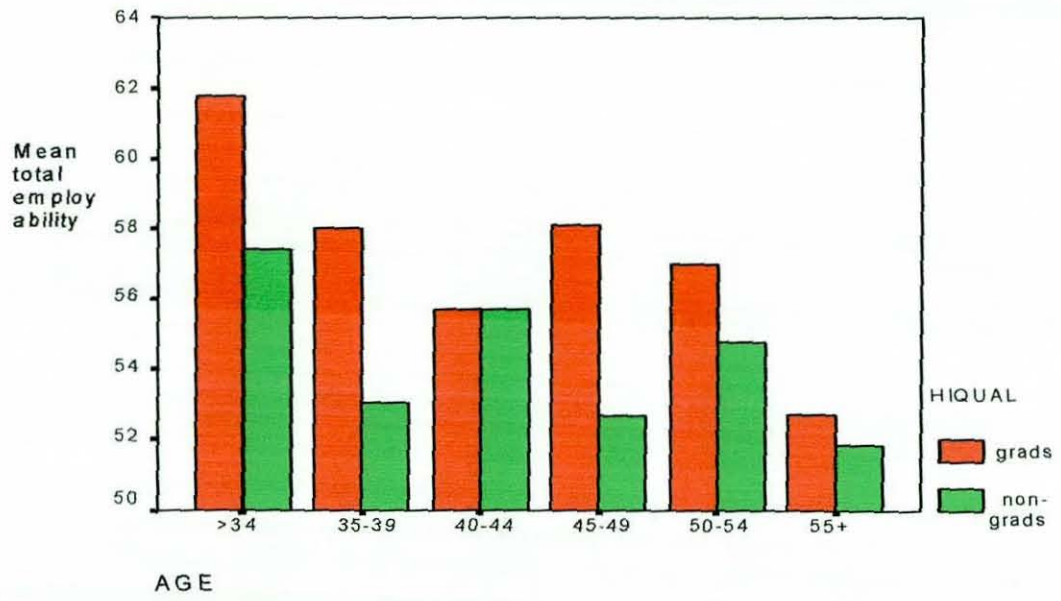
Figure 29: Total Internal employability by organisational position and professional level



Although the mean scores in each category are similar, comparison of the two bar charts reveals that in the four highest organisational position categories in each case, the relative position of members and fellows is reversed, albeit only by a small amount. . This could suggest that individuals at different levels of the organisation, or the profession, could have different perceptions of the internal and external employability, as measured by this scale. However one should be cautious about over-interpreting simple bar charts, and the small numbers of respondents in some of the

categories is also noteworthy, and one could not be confident that the phenomenon would be represented in the wider population from which the sample were drawn.

Figure 30: Total employability by age and qualification level



Employability was also analysed by age and qualification level, and the results are presented in figure 30. This reveals that apart from the 40-44 age group, possession of degree level qualifications has some,small positive impact on self perceived employability, at least for this sample, throughout their working lives. A two way analysis of variance showed a significant main effect for qualification level [F (1,177) = 5.198, $p \leq .024$], although the effects for age [F (5,177) = 1.851, $p \leq .105$] and the interaction effect [F (5,177) = .516, $p \leq .764$] did not reach statistical significance. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the under 34 age group (M = 58.73, SD = 7.60) was significantly different from the 55+ age group (M = 58.33, SD = 7.60). The only comparable study (Van der Heijden 2002) did not consider qualification level, focusing instead on a conceptualisation of professional knowledge.

Table 25: Employability item-by item mean scores

No.	Mean	Item
1	*3.53*	*I have good prospects in this organisation because my employer values my personal contribution*
2	*3.46*	*Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained*
3	*3.58*	*My personal networks in this organisation help me in my career*
4	*3.65*	*I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now*
5	4.09	The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation
6	3.63	I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere
7	3.52	I can use my professional networks and business contacts to develop my career
8	3.33	I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now
9	*3.97*	*Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation*
10	*3.42*	*People who do the same job as me who work in this organisation are valued highly*
11	3.32	If I needed to I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation
12	3.28	People who do a job like mine in organisations similar to the one I presently work in are really in demand by other organisations
13	2.89	I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organisation
14	3.56	Anyone with my level of skill and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers
15	3.28	I could get any job anywhere so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant
16	3.39	People with my kind of job-related experience are very highly valued in their organisation and outside whatever sort of organisation they have previously worked in

Key: *Internal employability*

External employability

The employability scale was also subjected to descriptive analysis on an item-by-item basis, as given the systematic progression in the original conceptual diagram from an internally me-focused perspective on employability (the top left hand corner of the diagram in Figure 2) to an external profession-focused perspective (the bottom right hand corner of that diagram) it might have been reasonable to expect a pattern in the responses. For example, if individuals might reasonably be expected to feel more confident within their own set of skills, within their own organisation, and within their own profession, one might expect to see a declining score across the scale from item1 to item 16. This would represent the shift from an internal focus (likely to score high) to an external focus (likely to score low). where, although there is substantial variation in the scores, a slight general downward trend from 'left to right' (ie. top to bottom of the list) is just about observable. This may suggest that even our sample of self-confident professionals feel most comfortable within their own organisational and professional context. The results are presented in table 16. Internal employability items are shown in italics.

Within the scores there were fairly substantial variations for this sample, for example item 5, relating to 'skills gained', scored relatively high (Mean = 4.09), whereas item 13 had the lowest mean score (2.89), although respondents could be forgiven for being somewhat more modest against such a bold statement. The scale construction is discussed in detail in chapter 4.

7.3.4 Subjective Career Success

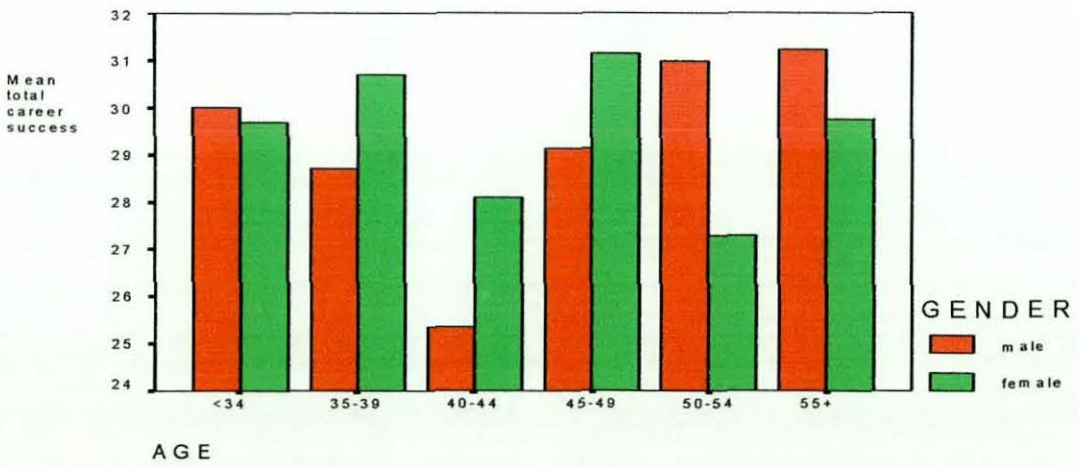
This section addresses the following specific research questions:
RQ16: What does this sample believe about their subjective career success?
RQ17: Are there differences by gender, age, membership level, qualification level and job level?
Subjective career success was measured using an eight item scale, with a possible range of values from 8 to 40. Some respondents scored the scale maximum, with a fairly narrow range (interquartile range 6.5, standard deviation 5.75).The distribution was not especially peaked (kurtosis -.034) and had a modest negative skew (-.280).

There was no significant difference in the arithmetic mean by gender (sig = .950 based on an independent samples t-test, eta squared .00002!).The females had a slightly larger standard deviation and a much larger interquartile range for the main body of the 50% of the responses. Both sexes report a similar negative skew towards the higher values, with the males having a much more 'peaked' (positive kurtosis) distribution. The spread of women's scores may suggest that some women feel

Table 26: Subjective career success by gender

	Male (1)	Female (2)
N	112	121
missing data (%)	11.6%	9.9%
Mean	29.66	29.71
Std. Deviation	5.29	6.17
Interquartile range	6.00	9.00
Skewness	-.292	-.277
Kurtosis	.662	-.454

Figure 31: Mean Total Subjective Career Success by Age and Gender



frustrated with their lack of career success, perhaps attributable to factors associated with gender discrimination, confirming the view of Van Eck Peluchette (1993:193)

who suggested that women were likely to feel less successful than men. At the top end

however, successful women feel much more positive about their success, supporting Simpson and Altman's view (2000:190) that those women who have broken through the 'glass ceiling' may well be individuals of exceptional calibre, although early discussion of this result with female colleagues revealed that some may find this conclusion patronising . Figure 31 (subjective career success by age and gender) shows a slight dip in self-perceptions of career success for the male respondents in mid career, with mid career females feeling the most successful, although late career males the most successful of all. This could be because they are at the highest level in organisations. However a two-way between groups analysis of variance did not reveal any significant main or interaction effects.

Table 27: Subjective Career Success by Membership level

	FCIPD's (1)	MCIPD's (2)
N	57	175
Missing data (%)	8.8%	10.9%
Mean	31.21	29.17
Std. Deviation	6.06	5.58
Range	24.00	28.00
Interquartile range	8.50	7.00
Skewness	-.471	-.271
Kurtosis	-.189	.133

Data for subjective career success were also split by membership level, and selected data are summarised here. The FCIPD's responses show a stronger negative skew towards the higher values indicating as one might expect that these are individuals very pleased with their career success, but the MCIPD's responses are more peaked (higher, positive kurtosis), although it must be remembered that there are roughly three times as many respondents represented here. With the exception of the mid-career 'dip' identified with other measures, late-career Fellows report the highest levels of career success, as one might expect. An independent samples t-test found a significant difference between the mean scores (t [206] = 2.233, $p \leq .027$), although the magnitude of the difference was quite small (eta squared = .024).

Figure 32: Subjective Career Success by Age and Membership Level

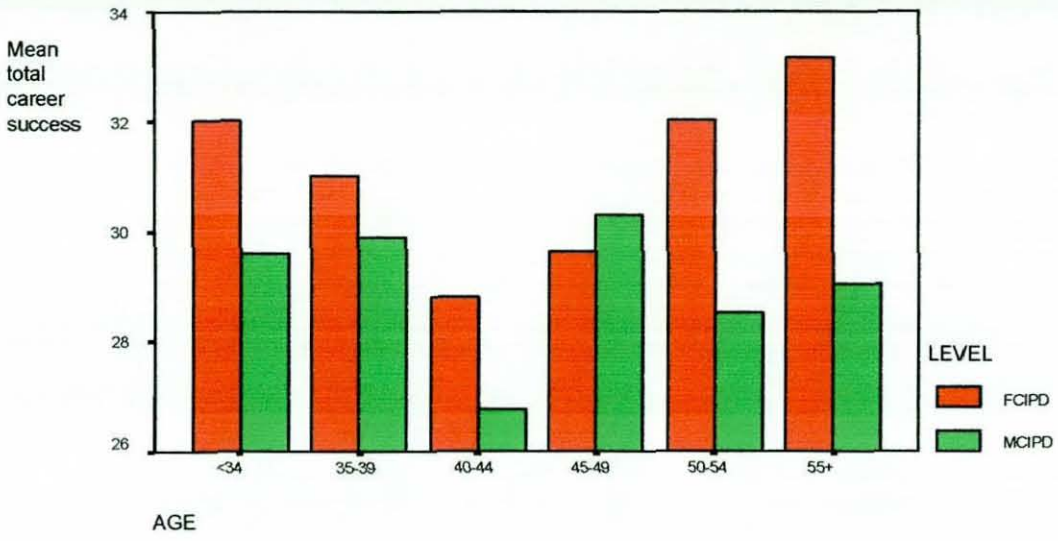
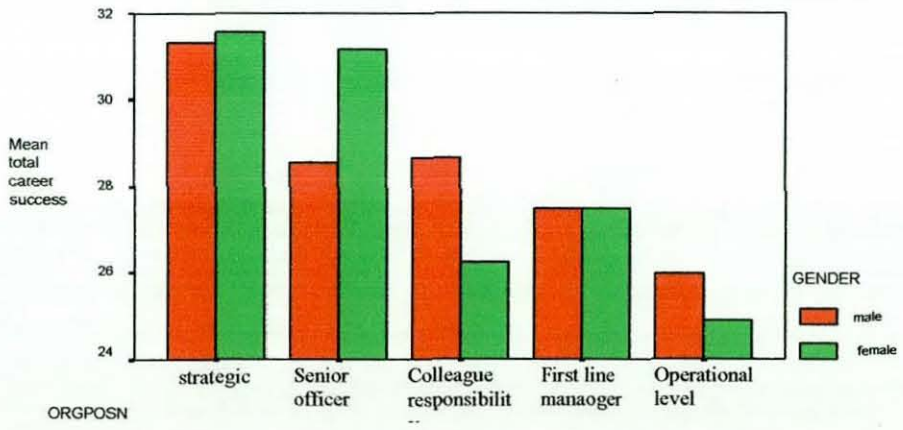


Figure 33: Mean total career success by organisational position and gender



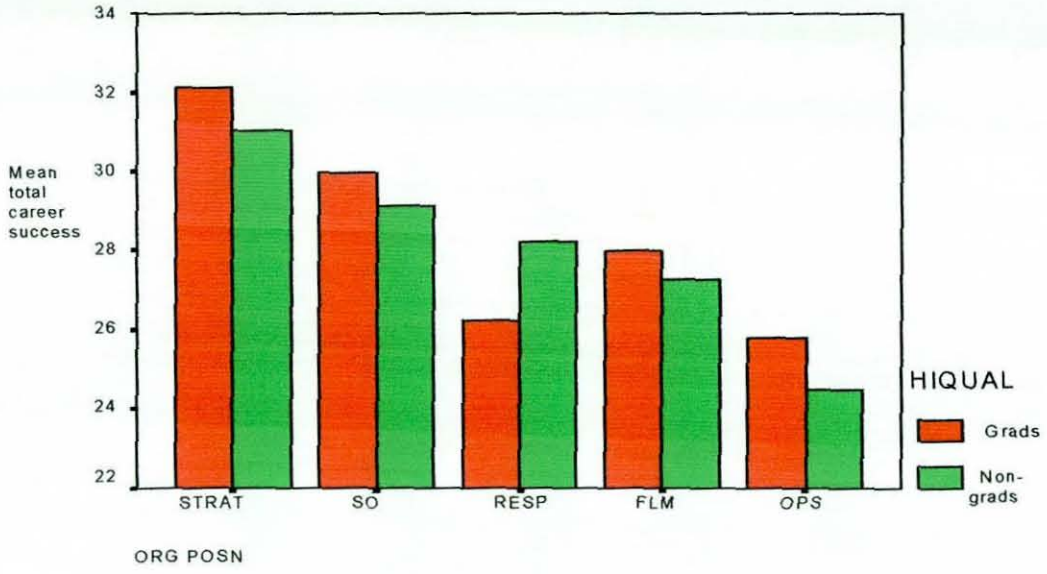
Early career Fellows (age groups 2 and 3) are very upbeat about their career success to date (this measure, essentially historical) as well as their potential for the future (employability above, essentially future-focused). There is a mid-career 'dip' for both categories.

A two-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age and membership level on subjective career success. Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated ($p = .112$). There was no significant main effect for age ([F (5,185) = .751, $p \leq .586$], with a quite significant effect for level [F (1, 185) = 3.263, $p \leq .072$], although the effect size was small (eta squared = .017). There was no significant interaction effect [F (5,185) = .572, $p \leq .721$). Post -hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD test indicated no significant differences.

Subjective career success was also analysed by organisational position and gender, as represented in figure 33. As one might expect, perceptions of success rise the higher the respondent's position in their employing organisation. A two-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the above relationships further. Levene's test of equality of error variances revealed no violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption. There was a statistically significant main effect for organisational position [F (4, 168) = 6.19, $p \leq .00$) and the effect size was large (eta squared .13). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as for employability, that the mean score for the strategic level group 1, (M = 31.47, SD = 5.03) was significantly different to the mean score for the 'colleague responsibility' group 3 (M = 28.67, SD = 6.18). The main effect for gender and the interaction effect did not reach statistical significance.

Figure 34 illustrates how subjective career success maps against the self-reported organisational position, by qualification level, using the five categories determined for this study, namely strategic level, senior officer level, colleague responsibility level, first line managers, and operational level. This would appear to indicate a connection between career success, organisational position, and being a graduate, in that senior people with degrees believe they are highly successful.

Figure 34: Career success by organisational position and qualification level



Exploring this further by means of a two-way analysis of variance revealed a very statistically *significant effect* for organisational position [F (4, 168), = 6.910, p ≤ .000], and according to Pallant (2001:175) the *effect size* was large (eta squared = .141), although there was no significant main effect for qualification, or interaction effect.

The impact of professional level and organisational position on subjective career success were explored by means of a two-way ANOVA. This revealed a statistically significant main effect for organisational position, [F (4, 168), = 4.558, p ≤.002], with a moderate to large effect size (eta squared = .098). Professional level showed a quite statistically significant result [F (1,168) = 3.514, p ≤ .063] but with a small effect size (eta squared = .020).The interaction effect was also quite statistically significant [F (4, 168) = 2.256, p ≤ .065], with a moderate effect size (eta squared = .051). As with employability these results reinforced the need to include 'organisational position' as a control variable. The individuals in 'First Line manager' positions may well be those enjoying early career success.

While more detailed analysis of the relationships between the variables is presented in chapter 8, even at a descriptive level some comparisons can be made, such as between employability and career success. Examination of the shape of the bar-chart responses reinforces the point developed later that these are qualitatively different constructs. For example, career success dips for mid-career males at a time when employability rises. Perceived employability declines for females over time, career success less so. Career success rises for the FCIPD's over time, while their employability declines. For organisational position, there are strong similarities in the distributions by gender, but quite different distributions, in appearances at least, by professional level. Clearly for all the above statements the qualifier 'for this sample' needs to be added, and there is considerable scope for extending this aspect of the research with other professional or occupational groups. Here, career success is likely to be linked, especially in the minds of older respondents, with past hierarchical career progression. Employability is a more contemporary or future-related concept relating to the sustainability of a career.

7.4 CPD ENGAGEMENT

The following section is an analysis of the results obtained from the last thirty-three items on the survey questionnaire which invited respondents to identify which CPD strategies they employed and to what extent. The following research questions are addressed:

RQ27: What are the most commonly reported means of updating for this sample?

RQ28: What are the differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level, and job level?

The items were scored on a five-point scale as follows:

- *never used for my CPD* (scores 1)
- *rarely used for my CPD* (scores 2)
- *occasionally used for my CPD* (scores 3)
- *quite often used for my CPD* (scores 4)
- *frequently used for my CPD* (scores 5)

Table 28: CPDE RANKED BY MEAN SCORE

RANK	ITEM NO.	ITEM	MEAN
1.	24	.Regular reading of journals and books relevant to my profession	4.04
2.	19	Sharing knowledge with colleagues	3.92
3.	22	Reading work-related documents from my organisation	3.73
4	3	Acquiring generic transferable skills and competencies related to my job	3.67
5.	31	Spontaneous learning arising from work or personal activities	3.52
6.	1	Practising the rules and procedures of my work organisation	3.44
7.	18	Learning through informal teamwork in the workplace	3.42
8.	10	Reflective discussions with colleagues that are informal but still relevant to the profession	3.35
9.	20	Action learning: learning from development projects	3.33
10	5	Acquiring knowledge through browsing websites or 'surfing the net'	3.04
11	23	Keeping a portfolio record of CPD activities I have undertaken	3.02
12	12	External courses my employer has paid for	3.01
13.	21	Membership of committees at my place of work eg. quality, health and safety	2.99
14	11	My employer's internal training courses	2.96
15	2	Learning professional knowledge eg. CIPD professional codes of practice	2.88
16	9	Reflective discussions with colleagues as part of a formal development review process	2.79

Table 28 contd.

17	30	Learning that is carefully planned in advance	2.72
18	14	Technical training eg. courses where I am learning how to use new computer software	2.64
19	29	Other personal activities outside of work eg. hobbies, scouts/guides, community or religious organisations, voluntary activities	2.62
20	4	Undertaking academic study that isn't necessarily related to my job or profession	2.43
21	25	Authorship of technical papers (internal or external to the organisation)	2.24
22	6	Exchanging emails on professional topics with other CIPD members	2.22
23	8	Keeping a reflective diary over an extended period of time	2.17
24	28	Full or Part time teaching in a subject area related to my profession	2.14
25	17	Participating in internal secondments or transfers at my place of work	1.97
26	26	Attending CIPD branch meetings regularly	1.87
27	13	My employer's open learning provision	1.84
28	15	Working towards a vocational qualification where I am sponsored by my employer	1.76
29	16	Working towards a vocational qualification which I am paying for myself	1.59
30	7	Taking part in an online discussion forum relevant to my profession	1.56
31	27	Membership of committees relevant to CIPD	1.54

The five-point rating scale was used to give visual consistency with the remainder of the survey. Missing data were coded as '9'. The extent to which individuals utilised a particular strategy was evidenced by the score provided.

The first of the last two items ('what is the main professional or work related area, competence or skill that you wish to develop during the next few years') aimed to identify respondents' future CPD needs. The final item invited respondents to make any comments they wished in relation to the questionnaire's topics, including their CPD, their employability, their profession and their career. Each of these items provided a rich source of qualitative data, and responses are listed in appendices 4 and 5 respectively. The facility for comparison with existing literature is somewhat limited however as for example Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998) did not consider *what* CPD their sample had done, more a focus on their attitudes to CPD in general and record-keeping in particular. Research by Sadler-Smith et al (2000), which included (page 248) identification of preferred learning methods for CIPD members was not uncovered until a later stage in the research. In the present study, some caution must be exercised in respect of over-interpreting these results as in many cases the differences in mean scores between ranked items are defined by the second decimal place. Table 28 includes a listing of mean score responses.

Data were collected for the Nottingham respondents only, as these question items were added after the Derby dataset had been collected. One hundred and nineteen questionnaires were returned (a 21.56% response rate). As the results were to be reported as a ranked list some consideration was given as to how this should be presented: as a ranked list of absolute total scores for each item, or as a ranked list of the mean scores for each item. The latter approach was adopted as it was believed that this would factor-in recognition of where respondents had not entered anything at all, and the response had been coded as missing data.

The most popular method of updating was identified as 'regular reading of books and journals relevant to my profession'. The CIPD publishes a twice-monthly magazine (People Management) and it is likely that this is the principal focus. In addition, one characteristic of the professional knowledge associated with the Human Resources

profession in the UK is that much of it is either codified as law, or codified as good practice by organisations such as ACAS or the CIPD themselves. Jones and Fear (1994:56) had found that 'reading current management literature' was the most common form of updating for their respondents.

'Spontaneous learning arising from work or personal activities' was ranked fifth in the present survey. Harris (2000b:2) noted that for their respondents 'the second most common form of learning activity was self directed or informal learning (33% to a great extent, 49% to some extent), while they also reported that '61% of corporate members thought their learning was fairly evenly spilt between planned and spontaneous'. while '25% thought it was mainly spontaneous arising from work'. Their most common CPD strategy had been 'professional work based activities', which included writing reports and presentations, planning and running in-house training events, and problem solving. Van Der Heijden (2002:59) offered cautionary comments in respect of reliance on work based learning strategies in the sense that individuals could find themselves operating in too narrow a skill domain, and a reliance of work-based strategies was perceived as too introspective.

To extend Van Der Heijden's point using the present dataset, here, eight of the top nine items were related to learning approaches located in the work organisation. Professional knowledge is by definition different to employer 'owned' procedural matters, and in focusing so much on employer-located learning professionals may not be adding the breadth that is professional knowledge, beyond the organisation.

The next item, in 10th place, ('acquiring knowledge through browsing websites or surfing the net') may reflect the tendency of organisations such as the CIPD, ACAS and also certain government departments to provide codes of practice or similar information as downloadable documents in the form of Acrobat files. Harris (2000a:6) reported only a modest interest in web-based strategies, and in fact participation in online discussions is placed next to bottom of the list in this study. Overall one may conclude that despite the strong rhetoric about the growth of online learning, so far as practitioners are concerned this development may be over-sold, supporting the views of Glover (2001:44) The respondents to the Harris survey (2000a:6) had agreed with

the use of web-based strategies 'to encourage discourse among professionals using themed discussion groups.'

In eleventh place came the actual recording of CPD, which respondents recognised as a development activity in itself, perhaps through providing an opportunity for reflection. Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:71) reported that their respondents were 'least well disposed towards CPD targets and recording'.

Internal and external courses (formal training) then feature among the next group of items, along with membership of committees at the workplace, although it is not clear whether these duties are voluntary or undertaken through a sense of organisational citizenship behaviour. Harris (2000b:2) reported that 24% of their respondents used courses to a great extent and 48% to some extent. From this point on the items present themselves with in no noteworthy order, although a number of points can be made. Codified professional knowledge is located in 15th place, which might have been expected to rank higher considering the professional knowledge in this field is largely codified as employment legislation, or as 'good practice' as promoted by ACAS or the CIPD. Personal hobbies (19th place) present themselves as a valuable learning opportunity and these were presented ahead of formal training courses. Harris (200b:2) had reported personal activities as utilised by 16% to a great extent and by 38% to some extent. Non work-related academic study (20th) ranked ahead of working towards vocational qualifications (28th and 29th places), whether paid for by the employer or not. This is substantially different to the emphasis placed on qualifications by Jones and Fear (1994). Harris (2000a:4) noted that for their respondents: 'many expressed dissatisfaction with the relevance of traditional classroom based learning and its transferability back to the workplace.'

Engagement with CIPD 'institute' activities ranked very low with attending branch meetings in 26th place and committee membership identified last. Again, This is very different to the Harris respondents (2000a:4) where 41% claimed to attend branch meetings, although their sample included student members. The author is a member of the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire branch committee and has observed that student members appear to make up at least half of the attendees at branch events. Jones and

Fear (1994:56) reported that 5% of their respondents attended branch meetings. The variable responses could also relate to question wording: a respondent who attended just one meeting a year would be included in the Jones and Fear, and Harris responses. The question in the present study relates more to the effect of attending branch meetings. There were no responses to items 93 and 94: 'other'.

Overall the results would suggest that Human Resources practitioners gain most, but by no means all, of their professional development from within their job role. Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:71) had emphasised the importance of CPD as 'an integral part of members' routines' and this study would seem to support that view. Sadler-Smith et al. (2000:249) found that work based methods were preferred by their respondents, with self-directed methods the least preferred. They noted that although ' techniques such as distance learning and computer based methods' had been heavily promoted, these were rated as less effective by their respondents than work based methods. What is noteworthy is the focus on activities owned by the organisation or closely related to their present job role, supporting the view of Bird (1994) of 'organisations as platforms for learning' and Herriot and Pemberton's (1995) 'development deal'. Sadler-Smith et al (2000:252) had noted that:
'it is a matter of concern that there is little enthusiasm for techniques that lie at the heart of flexible learning and the notion of learner responsibility which underlie so much of modern training and development'.
The present study suggests that there may be some reliance on self directed methods, although there is still a strong organisational focus.

For individuals therefore, a future focus may well be on emphasising how to maximise the value of their in-role learning. However this should be matched by raising their awareness of learning opportunities beyond their present job, as this is where professional, rather than organisationally owned knowledge can be developed. For organisations, perhaps they should question whether it is worth promoting the notion of academic study (whether supported or not) when the practitioners themselves see little developmental payoff from it. Maguire and Fuller (1997:176) distinguished between the 'use' and 'exchange' aspects of qualifications, meaning that the content of a qualification needs to have some intrinsic usefulness ('use'), rather

than simply being an item of value in the labour market which may be a ticket to a better job ('exchange'). This is an issue for course providers such as Higher Education Institutions in an era where the cost of engaging with qualifications is increasing, consumers (ie. students, both full and part time, or their employers) are likely to be more selective and more demanding about what they engage with.

For the professional institute itself, a number of issues are suggested. That professional development is an issue at the top of the professional's agenda is not in dispute, and there are many examples of efforts to promote this (eg. Maguire and Fuller 1997, Warr 2001, Viney and Muller 2002, White 2002, Redmond 2003). The last few years have seen a plethora of publications in almost every professional institute magazine exhorting their members to 'do CPD'. A journal with the title of Continuing Professional Development promotes the generic issues, and the Professional Associations Research Network (PARN) is a forum for interprofessional discourse. At a practical level however a number of needs present themselves. First, mechanisms need to be provided to recognise and record the learning and development from a wide range of activities. What this study has suggested is that if professional members are left to exercise self-direction in their choice of learning activity - and after all, they *are* professionals so one might reasonably expect this - they are not necessarily going to acquire the breadth of development that is necessary for professional learning as opposed to in-role training. The challenges are how to promote this breadth without over-prescription (Taylor 1996:384, Sandelands 1998:75, Blyth 2000:53), while at the same time recognising that many developmental activities fulfill both an individual and an organisational agenda (Kennie and Enemark 1999:155). If individuals are to see a need to engage then they need to believe in the benefits of doing so (Jones and Fear 1994:51).

Opportunities for comparison with other relevant work are limited due to the limited amount of empirical research in the field. Jones and Fear (1994) placed a similar emphasis on work-based development, often informal and self-directed. They reported that 79% of their respondents made use of on the job CPD opportunities, 68% informal self-directed learning, and 54% learning not leading to qualifications.

The other main empirical study available (Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) focused on attitudes to CPD targets and recording rather than what was actually undertaken. Sadler-Smith et al. (2000) considered preferred learning methods but principally focused on cognitive style, which may be considered in a future extension of this research. Their findings (with a similar sample) suggested a reliance on directed learning methods, while the present study suggested that for this sample more informal methods of learning may be preferred.

Early models of CPD emphasised inputs such as 'hours spent' (Senior 2002:2) a measure avoided in the present study although in retrospect this would have provided a some quantifiable measure of engagement. Kennie and Enemark (1998:157) also emphasised the distinction between 'formal modes of learning' (eg. conferences, qualification based courses) and 'informal modes of learning' (eg. secondments, experiential learning at work).

The present study has supported the findings of Harris (2000a), where 62% of respondents reported that learning was 'spontaneous, arising from work activities.' (page 4), with a strong organisational focus towards work-based learning. Harris (2000a:11) recommended a segmented approach to CPD on the part of professional organisations (actually also the CIPD in the case of the Harris study) to recognise the diverse needs of CIPD members: the sample are rather less homogenous than one might expect. However for the CIPD having a workable scheme of CPD is a matter of necessity, especially as from July 2002 all members passing the professional qualifications have had a mandatory requirement to register their CPD including an action plan for the future (Glover 2001:44) Overall this section of the descriptive results has suggested that although the CIPD may not have universal support for its CPD strategies, those members who responded have engaged with a wide range of CPD opportunities, but there still needs to be careful consideration of what members actually get out of CPD, at an individual level beyond simply a 'licence to practice'. The next section considers a measure of individual engagement with CPD.

7.5 A Measure of Individual Engagement with CPD

To attempt to develop a measure of individual engagement with CPD requires an awareness of some of the potential weaknesses of using the descriptive listing described above as the basis for an individual measure of CPD. In this research, respondents were invited to indicate their relative utilisation of each of the CPD strategies rather than the amount of time or effort expended on each one. Thus (bearing in mind that this is a hypothetical, extreme example) a respondent could spend all of their time on just one activity, 'practising the rules and work procedures of their organisation', and no time at all on any other item. Thus their total score would be:

respondent a $[(1 \times 5) + (30 \times 1)] = 35$

As a comparison an individual who engaged with a wide range of activities all to what they perceived to be a moderate amount could score:

respondent b $31 \times 3 = 93$

Table 29: Nottingham Respondents by Age, Gender & Membership level: (No.)

	Totals		MCIPD		FCIPD	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
>34	3	10	3	9	0	1
35-39	7	18	6	18	1	0
40-44	6	11	3	10	3	1
45-49	12	9	9	8	3	1
50-54	9	7	4	5	5	2
55+	9	8	6	7	3	1

In the above example, should one conclude that respondent 'b' had engaged with CPD more than respondent 'a'? The raw score would suggest this, and 'b' certainly

benefitted from a greater range of learning experiences, thus subjectively we may infer that this is the case. What we do not know from this data however is how conscientiously each respondent engages with his or her preferred learning strategies, and the depth of reflection they engage in to take them beyond 'surface learning' into the domain of 'deep learning' (Hoeksma et al. 1997). It is therefore with this 'health warning' in mind that the following results are considered.

A further caution relates to the smaller sample size. Data for CPD engagement was only gathered for the Nottingham respondents. Thus when the data is analysed by age, gender or membership level the actual numbers in some categories are now very small, rendering meaningful analysis difficult. Table 29 above illustrates the issue. Because of the small numbers of respondents in the FCIPD category across most age groups, analysis by membership level was not undertaken at this stage, and may be an avenue for extension of the study at a later date.

Using the procedure outlined in Pallant (2001:76), a 'total scale score' was calculated for the thirty-one items of 'CPD engagement'. The reason for doing this was to undertake descriptive analysis such as by gender or age and to be consistent with the treatment of the survey items. An internal correlation (alpha) coefficient was calculated at .88, but again this should be treated with caution as this listing was never intended to be a scale designed to have good psychometric properties, simply to be a comprehensive list of ways in which individuals could engage with CPD.

Table 30: Total CPD Engagement, Selected Descriptive Statistics by Gender

	Male	**Female**
Mean	83.45	84.22
Std. Deviation	18.74	17.81
Range	81.00	112.00
Interquartile range	27.00	15.00
Skewness	-.405	.282
Kurtosis	-.379	2.192

In this case the high alpha coefficient is likely to be a consequence of the large number of scale items rather than any inherent psychometric properties.

As can be seen from table 30, while the means and standard deviations are more or less identical, the female respondents' range is wider and the distribution more peaked as evidenced by the interquartile range and the kurtosis, with some outlying values. The male distribution is negatively skewed.

Figure 35: Mean Total CPD Engagement by Age and Gender

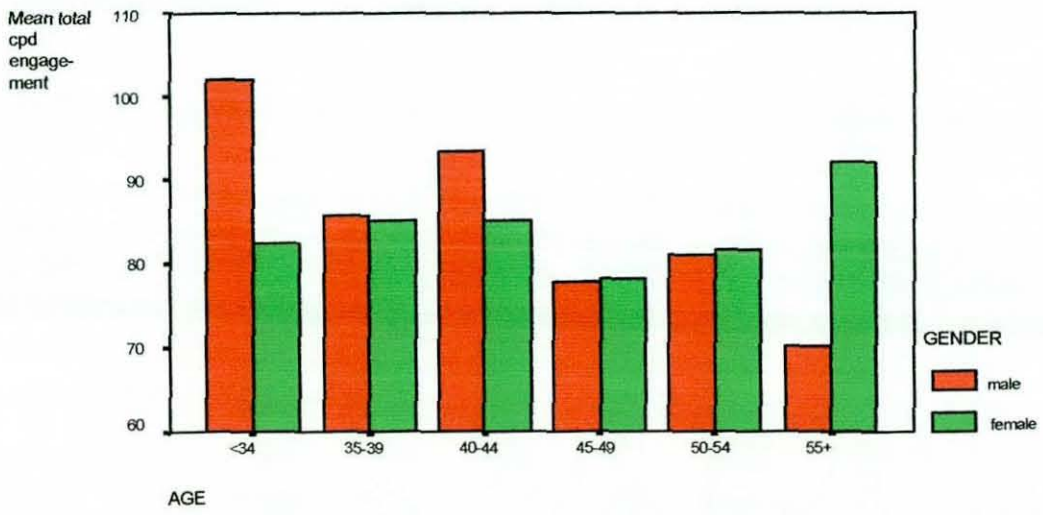


Figure 35 above illustrates mean total CPD engagement by age and gender. The most noticeable difference is between the male score in the lowest and highest categories, and that while male scores decrease with age, the females show a slight increase.

A two- way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age and gender on CPD engagement. Levene's test of error variances ($p \leq .027$) suggested that the assumption of equality of variances was violated, so the analysis proceeded with equal variances not assumed, and a more stringent significance level set of .01. There was no statistically significant main effect for age [F (5, 84) = 1.221, $p \leq .306$], or gender [F (1, 84) = ..060, $p \leq .808$], or an interaction effect, although this came closer to statistical siginficance [F (5,84) = 1.741, $p \leq .134$]. These analyses

reinforce the cautionary points made in Pallant (2001;191 et seq.) that firstly one should not get 'too excited' about apparent differences revealed diagrammatically, and also that many factors can influence statistical significance: in this case the small sample sizes in the various age categories by gender need to be considered, as the power of the sample is likely to be too low.

Figure 36: Mean total CPD engagement by organisational position and gender

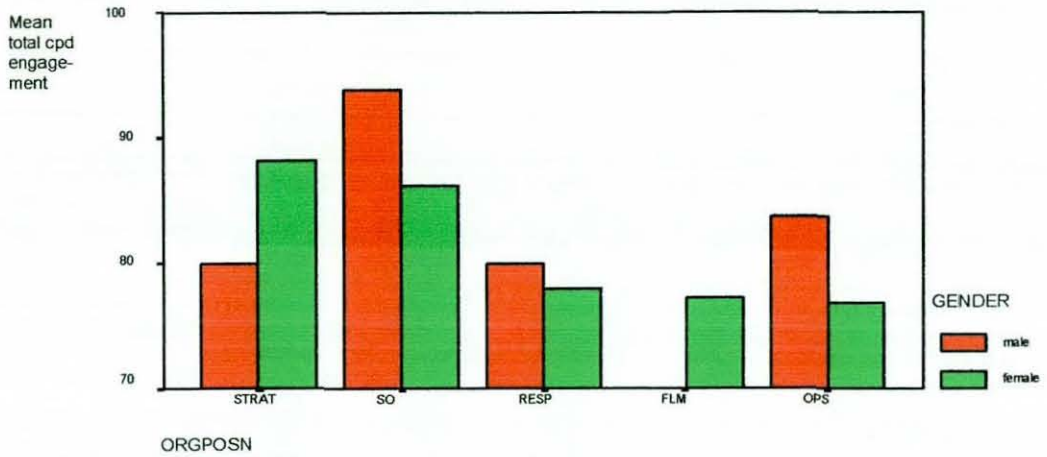
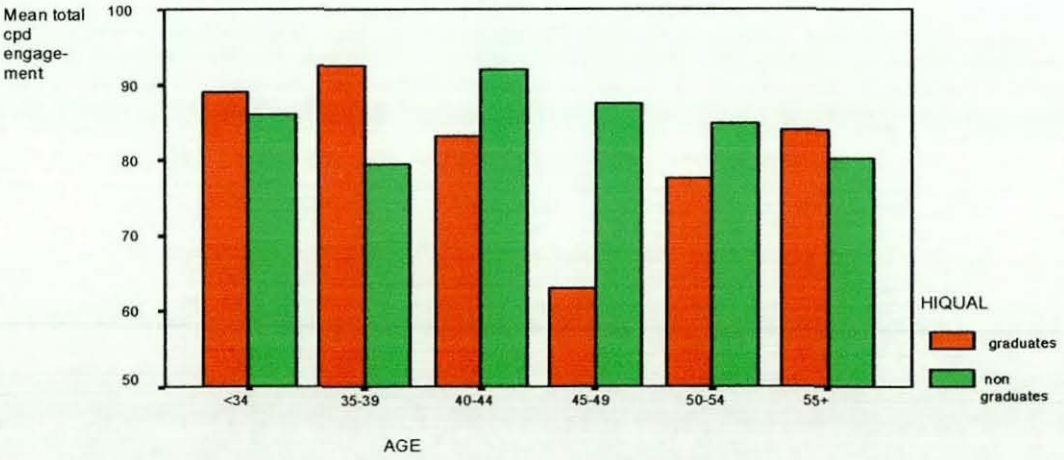


Figure 36 illustrates mean total CPD engagement by organisational position, and gender. The males in the 'senior officer' level showed the highest engagement with CPD, reflecting perhaps a connection to career ambition. Ambition was not included as a measure in this study, but may be an avenue for future research.

Figure 37: CPD Engagement by age and qualification level



The highest engagement by professional level was shown by the most senior fellows, again reinforcing the point that they are likely to see themselves as being pace-setters in CPD, as well as tending to be highly professionally committed. Analysis by age and qualification level, as demonstrated in figure 37, reveals that while younger graduates show greater engagement (as reported by this measure) with CPD, this drops markedly in mid-career, rising again by late career. Making a (somewhat tentative!) connection to a recurring theme from the qualitative research (chapter 5), one could speculate that this is the point at which either the graduate respondents encounter greater family responsibilities, because they have had children later than non-graduates, or because of the pressure of work in mid-career. The effect of age and qualification level on CPD engagement were explored further using a two-way analysis of variance. No significant main effects were found for either age [F (5, 84) - 1.250, $p \leq .293$], or qualification level [F (1, 84) = .908, $p \leq .343$], but there was a significant interaction effect [F (5,84) = 2.647, $p \leq .028$], with a large effect size (eta squared = .136). Post -hoc tests using Tukey's HSD test did not reveal any statistically significant result, although splitting the file by qualification level revealed that CPDE engagement for graduates in the 45-49 age category was significantly different to most of the other age categories. .

As can be seen here, the measure of individual engagement with CPD offers substantial potential for further development and for replication with other groups of professionals, and there remain a number of questions to follow up. In subsequent studies care should be taken to ensure that a large enough sample is used to give meaningful sub-samples in the various age categories, and also in the organisational position categories: there are just two males at 'first line manager' level.

The potential for comparison with similar studies is limited because they have tended not to examine quite the same things. Sadler Smith and Badger (1998:71 et seq.) considered 'commitment to professional development' and 'CPD targets and recording', and on the latter measure found that males in senior positions were the least well disposed towards that aspect of CPD. They also found (page 72) that 'newer

members were more favourably disposed towards CPD targets and recording'. Sadler-Smith et al (2000) considered CPD preferences and cognitive style, and found that (page 250) female intuitive learners showed a preference for work-based methods, while male intuitive learners least preferred them. They found no significant gender differences in relation to self-directed methods. Overall, while the opportunity for comparison with other studies is limited, this does emphasise the originality of this research. Correlations, for example between age and CPDE, and CPDE and CPDV are considered in chapter 8.

7.6 Endnotes

This section of this chapter briefly considers the responses to the open questions at the end of the questionnaire, which are listed in appendices eight and nine.

7.6.1: 'Any other comments?'

Appendix 4 lists the responses made to the question: *'Please use this space for any other comments you may have in respect of your CPD, how you feel about your employability, your profession or your career'*. The responses are listed in the appendix identified by SPSS ID number, age and gender. Although care must be taken in avoiding over-interpretation of descriptive data, some themes were very apparent, and these are discussed further below.

Of the fifty-one respondents to this item, nine identified **age** as a matter of concern, this being more than for any other identifiable response. Comments included:
'I have an extensive range of experience however I find now that I am past 50 my age is against progression in many organisations' [female 52]
'Sadly CPD cannot overcome the ageism still found in industry. At 52 I regard myself as unemployable if this role ever finished! [male 52]
Such concerns reflect the findings reported above in respect of declining pereceptions of employability especially among female respondents. One respondent recognised the challenges but offered a positive contribution that could be made by older employees generally:
'Conventional CPD is difficult for older members at end of working life. Would like to see a different focus for us - on mentoring and coaching others'. [female 56]

Eight respondents expressed concerns about the recording process involved in CPD (including time management), and although Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:71) identified that their 'respondents were least well disposed towards targets and recording' on the whole their respondents were positive about this, a similar inference can be drawn for the present sample. Responses ranged from that of the unidentified

respondents who suggested that: 'I do the CPD, recording and writing it all up is another matter!', to:

'CIPD make this process far too formal - which leads people to concentrate on training opportunities at the expense of development opportunities. No follow-up on process - a paper led exercise' [female 29]

Three respondents pointed to work-life balance issues as being a matter of concern especially the need to 'do CPD' as well as handling domestic responsibilities, and the fact that the profession tended not to be so family friendly as job share opportunities in HR were relatively scarce. Some respondents echoed concerns uncovered in the literature review about the extent to which CPD was affected by employer's attitudes to development. These concerns included a view that employers were shifting responsibility for development (thus becoming self-development) onto employees as a result of CPD, while other respondents were concerned about or a lack of development opportunities within a particular organisation.

Those respondents who did choose to offer further comments were on the whole negative, notably:

'I don't care a fig for formalised CPD and the need to evidence it to satisfy CIPD requirements. I've always been successful without CPD or the CIPD. I'm not ambitious - I just want to be happy and stress free - and I am!' [female 47]

and: -

'I don't remember actively engaging in CPD. I have only attended three IPD meetings in my career' [male 51].

However one might consider the extent to which this may be due to an individual working with a transactional psychological contract: 'My attitude to work is fairly hard headed. It is a business contract. I could do other things'. [male, 49]

Of the few respondents who did offer positive comments, these offered a pragmatic approach not necessarily aligned with the level of prescription that some institutes are moving towards. For example: 'CPD is essential - even if not documented formally or in great detail, as it provides a realistic summary of previous achievements and future professional planning requirements' [female 31].

Finally a number of respondents offered concerns about the lack of relevance of questionnaire items to individuals working as self-employed consultants, and especially in training and development. In fact, since the initial fieldwork was undertaken this has emerged as an issue in the CIPD nationally, and the Institute have been keen to emphasise that they do value such members and have issued policy statements as a result (eg. CIPD 2002c).

7.6.2 'What is the main professional or work related area, competence or skill that you wish to develop during the next few years?

This question was added to the end of the revised questionnaire sent to the sample with Nottingham postcodes. Their responses are listed in appendix 5. Eighty-nine responses were received, almost all of which identified just one priority item. Very clear themes emerged, which are summarised below. Where percentages are quoted these have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

Twenty per cent of respondents identified 'strategic HRM' or closely related topics (eg. change management, strategic decision making, organisational development) as their main priority area for development, suggesting a connection to Jones and Fear's (1994:56) findings of the need to link individual CPD to corporate plans. Jones and Fear's respondents also identified (1994:55) 'strategic HRM' as their primary development need, followed by employment law, training and development, the changing environment of HRM, employee relations, and computerised information systems..

In second place in the present study (16% of respondents) were issues related to coaching, mentoring and training; meaning here the skills development to deliver these activities. This reflects perhaps the development focus of many of the 'trainers' in the profession, whose perceived under-representation was a live issue for the CIPD at the time the study was undertaken (CIPD 2002c).

Not surprisingly employment law and European Law, both constantly changing features of this profession's knowledge base, featured high on the list with 10% of

respondents reporting this as their priority development need. Also unsurprising is the identification of IT updating (7%), although that employee relations was a priority for just 6% may be indicative of a slight change in the 'climate' of organisations at the start of the 21st century. 'Personnel managers' of the 1980's would typically spend a good deal of their time on dispute resolution. Compensation and benefits related issues (including job evaluation) also scored 6%, as did planning for one's own retirement, as opposed to the retirement of others.

These were followed by a group of topics mentioned by just two respondents each, including work-life balance, managing staff, European languages, strategic management development, psychometric assessment, counselling skills, neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), and diversity and equality issues. Two academic respondents included a range of very specific education-related needs including assessing Doctoral presentations (!). Finally a long list of items were mentioned by just one respondent including health and safety, retirement planning for others, succession planning, working in the private sector, and influencing skills. There were some rather unusual suggestions too, including 'blue-skies thinking' and complexity theory.

The responses to this item tell us that there are some significant themes which can be addressed by the Institute's own national or local (branch) activities. Employee relations, IT and employment law are no surprise, but the profession's tendency to talk-up its strategic role in the last decade or so may have left some members feeling vulnerable about operating at the strategic level. Certainly there may be a gap between theory and practice in the sense that while models of strategic HRM have been widely promoted, what practitioners may value more is ways of actually implementing the strategies in an organisational context. To some extent these issues have been addressed by the new CIPD professional standards (CIPD 2002a) but while these will be applied to newly qualifying members, the older members are less positive and the challenge remains of how to integrate strategic development with CPD processes. Finally, the long 'tail' of individual responses should serve to remind the profession that individual development needs can be as many and varied as the individuals themselves, and CPD mechanisms need to account for this. Despite the nine-year gap,

the results compare with Jones and Fear's (1994) study in that development priorities remain remarkably similar.

7.7 Overall Conclusions: Preliminary analyses

7.7.1: The preliminary analyses

In this study, substantial attention has been paid to the descriptive analysis of the dataset, perhaps more than might normally be the case at Doctoral level, with analyses of variance where appropriate, although only some of these revealed statistically significant results. There are a number of reasons for this focus. First, this is a relatively under-researched set of variables, and the research that has been done (eg. Jones and Fear 1994, some parts of Sadler Smith and Badger 1998, and especially the Harris Research CIPD studies) had focused on the descriptive attributes of their respondents, although not exclusively so. By comparing these descriptive attributes, the researcher has been able to make more meaningful comparisons at a number of levels, and these are detailed in the preceding sections. Secondly, some of the variations in results produced could be explained to a limited extent by individual characteristics such as gender or sample size. Third, there were a series of research questions listed at the start of this chapter which reflected the somewhat exploratory nature of the research.

This final section summarises some of the key issues identified, and addresses each of the research questions in turn. The broad demographic characteristics (age profile, gender, full time/part time split, employment sector) of the sample are consistent with those used in previous, similar studies of CIPD members (Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, and the Harris Research studies 2000a, 2000b, 2000c), and are representative of the corporate membership (MCIPD's and FCIPD's) nationally. Response rates (24.09%) also compared with similar studies. Trends indicate that this may be a feminising profession with an aging male membership. There is a tendency for the younger members to be better qualified and female, with a greater proportion of graduates entering the profession. That many respondents were well qualified already reflected the trends in the profession, and were to have a significant effect on a number of the measures. Eighteen per cent of the sample

identified themselves as independent consultants, comparable to other studies, who were predominantly but not exclusively older men. Their needs and representation was a particular issue for the CIPD at the time the research was carried out (CIPD 2002c), and a shortcoming of the questionnaire design was that it did not allow such respondents sufficient opportunities to reflect their interests. One third of the respondents claimed to operate at a strategic level, and half in the top two levels of influence identified in the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics for the variables indicated that all the distributions were negatively skewed, reflecting as Pallant (2001:179) suggests 'the underlying nature of the construct being measured'.

7.7.2 Research questions

RQ9: What level of professional commitment does this sample have?

RQ10: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

Pallant's comment above is one that was reflected in the first of the variables, which was strongly negatively skewed. One might reasonably expect a professional sample to self-report strong levels of professional commitment. This variable showed high scores throughout the individual's careers with a modest effect for age, though not statistically significant, and no significant effect for gender. Although PC remained high overall, individuals in mid-career showed lower commitment, though not significant statistically. The youngest male respondents showed the highest PC. The results, though generally as predicted, contained some unexpected 'blips'. For example, when analysed by membership level and age, FCIPD's (the higher membership grade) appeared to peak mid-career at the same point that the MCIPD's scores fell to their lowest level, although again these were apparent variations revealed by bar charts and not statistically significant. Qualification level did have a significant statistically effect on professional commitment, as it was on a number of the variables. Graduates showed a higher level of professional commitment at all age categories.

A further group of research questions related to the perceived value of CPD (CPDV), the scale items being adapted from Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:70). These were:

RQ13: To what extent do these respondents value CPD?

RQ14: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

Again the results showed a strong negative skew, and supported Sadler-Smith and Badger's findings (1998:70) that the value attached to CPD was high. An independent samples t-test revealed that 30% of the variation in CPDV scores was explained by gender. While male scores appeared to decline with age, this effect did not reach statistical significance. Late career Fellows place the highest value of all on CPD, but what may be evident here is a sense of 'professional citizenship' (ie. seeing themselves as the guardians of the professional standards) rather than a commitment to CPD for their own development. Sadler-Smith and Badger's results from two-way ANOVAs also found no significant main or interaction effects, as in the present study. The impact of qualification level, though not statistically significant, was clearly higher for individuals early in their career. Avenues for further research (despite the lack of statistical significance in the results) may include:

- why does the value attached to CPD by male respondents fall throughout their careers, while for female respondents it rises?
- although as a contrast why do males at the operational or first line manager organisational levels place such a high value on CPD?
- and why do FCIPD's at the lowest level place the highest value on CPD? Are these two points part of a case for including a measure of ambition in future, related research?

Subjective career success was measured using an eight item scale derived from existing research (Greenhaus et al. 1990, Nabi 1998, 1999) which in this study had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.88. Research questions addressed at this stage included:

RQ16: what does this sample believe about the subjective career success?

RQ17: are there differences by age, gender, membership level, qualification level and job level?

The results were considered to be of interest in themselves as this was believed to be the first time that subjective career success had been considered for a professional sample. Overall the respondents rated their subjective success fairly high, with a

modest negative skew to the distribution, clearly in the top half of the available range. No significant differences by age or gender were identified although both groups displayed a mid-career 'dip'. The main results were much as expected: late career FCIPDs, who happened also to be the oldest males, and those in senior positions perceived their subjective success to be highest of all. Early career FCIPDs also showed strong scores, reflecting perhaps early perceptions of success by individuals who perceived them-selves to be 'fast track', although being a graduate had no statistically significant impact on perceptions of career success. Organisational position did have a significant effect on perceptions of subjective career success. Because of the unknown nature of the relationships between career success and variables such as CPD, partly due to the lack of prior research, and partly due to the nature of the constructs themselves, further exploration using multiple hierarchical regression was undertaken and this is considered in chapter 8.

Further research questions related to the employability scale developed as part of the research project. The only other useable scale found was published after this fieldwork was completed (Van der Heijden 2002:44).The research questions relating to employability and addressed in this chapter included:

RQ20: What is this sample's self perception of their employability (main scale)?

RQ22: Are there differences in the main scale and sub-scales by age, gender, qualification level, professional level and job level?

Responses for the present scale were more normally distributed and less skewed than Van der Heijden's, though still with a modest negative skew. The identification of two sub-scales relating to internal and external employability was described in chapter 6. A very similar pattern of responses was observable across the main scale and subscales, although respondents generally considered their internal employability to be higher than their external employability. Although t-tests revealed little difference based on gender, two-way ANOVAs revealed a significant interaction effect of age and gender, most pronounced in the 35-39 year age group. The scale had been systematically developed to reflect a continuum from an internal focus (me, this internal labour market, this profession) to an external focus (other occupations, the external labour market) and as expected a declining score was recorded for the more 'external' items: the sample perceived their employability to be lower the more they

moved away from their own comfort zones. Generally self-perceived employability declined with age, supporting the views of Neilsen (1999) and Van der Heijden (2002). Graduates felt significantly more employable than non graduates, especially the younger respondents, and this perception of greater employability remained throughout their career. However, due to the present (and continuing) saturation of the graduate labour market, whether the present population of young graduates will sustain this perception is a matter for longitudinal study.

Both employability and subjective career success revealed mid-career 'dips', which could lead one to suspect that there may be construct redundancy. It must be emphasised that despite these similarities in outcomes, employability as measured here is believed to be a totally distinct construct to subjective career success - the former being future-focused and the latter past focused. The difference is reinforced by the fact that perceived employability falls with age, while subjective career success remains high: employability is 'where am I going', success is 'where have I been', or 'where am I now and how did I get here'. What neither of the constructs really account for is a measure of ambition (where do I want to go?), reinforcing the point made above that this should be included in future extensions of the research. The relationships of the employability and career success scales are explored further in chapters 6 and 8.

Questions relating to the CPD that the professionals actually engaged with were introduced at a mid-point in the research, and thus included responses from the Nottinghamshire members only. The question listing had been sourced from a range of the practitioner literature and some of the limited amount of academic work eg. Jones and Fear 1994, and Sadler Smith and Badger 1998. Research questions included:

RQ27: What are the most commonly reported means of updating for this sample?
RQ28: What are the differences by age, gender, professional level, qualification level and organisational level?

Regarding the respondent's CPD strategies most of the most popular ones were related to the respondent's organisation and job role, suggesting that these relate to

organisational-procedural matters rather than generic professional knowledge. Despite the promotion of web-based strategies in a range of fora (eg. the Professional Associations Research Network as well as the CIPD themselves), these appear not yet to have gained wide acceptance. Although designed as a list rather than as a scale with good psychometric properties, responses to 'total CPD engagement' (TCPDE) were analysed by age, gender, membership level and job level. Differences did not reach statistical significance, although it was observable that male CPDE declined with age, and female CPDE remained either constant or rising, supporting the findings of Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:71). Younger graduates showed the highest engagement with CPDE, suggesting that they may well have a higher pre-disposition to learning. This reinforces the belief that some measure of predisposition to learn may well be a useful inclusion in future, related research. The findings suggest that CIPD members could benefit from guidance as to how to maximise the value of in-role learning, how to extend learning opportunities beyond the immediate role into the wider professional domain, and to broaden their sources of learning generally, Higher Education institutions may wish to note the apparently low value placed on qualification-based study. However as approximately half of the respondents were very well qualified already, they would have to be convinced of the 'use and exchange' (Maguire and Fuller 1997) of any future qualifications before making a further commitment.

Many respondents also commented on matters of importance or concern to them in the future, including the impact of ageism on career progression or even one's employability, disappointing in a profession which is itself suppose to promote good practice in employment. A wide variety of attitudes to CPD were revealed by these qualitative responses: some very positive, some extremely negative. Twenty per cent of respondents identified issues related to Strategic HRM as their top development priority, with training and facilitation skills and employment law not far behind, in addition to a wide range of other, more individual concerns. One might speculate that those individuals identifying strategic HRM as a priority may aspire to senior positions, again reinforcing the need for a measure of ambition in future extensions of this study. Key messages for HR departments and for the profession generally include a need to address issues of ageism, of providing development in areas actually

needed, and of providing a CPD framework that is flexible enough to accommodate the wide variety of individual needs.

7.8 Summary comments

While sections 7.2 - 7.6 may appear to reveal interesting aspects of the data, differences where identified have not often reached statistical significance, and one should be extremely careful about over-interpreting results from descriptive analysis. Nonetheless some worthwhile and sometimes unexpected results were obtained including: gender similarities in responses to the employability scale and subjective career success scales, although the between-scale differences by gender (see above) were just as noticeable. These included statistically significant gender differences in respondents' perceptions of the value of CPD, lower self-perceptions of career success for late career women, although those that had such achievements were likely to be exceptionally high calibre individuals. Also noteworthy were lower self perceptions of employability for mid-career men and women, and lower levels of subjective career success for early career men. Qualification level had a noticeable if not always statistically significant impact across a range of variables.

Of possible concern to the institute may be a potential lack of interest in CPD (as evidenced by the variable 'CPDV' not 'CPDE' which is discussed later) among late career men. These also comprised the group that had a higher perception of subjective career success, and were the highest status employees on the highest membership level.

Finally, because of the relatively exploratory nature of some aspects of this research project, close attention has been paid to the research questions associated with the characteristics of the sample and their responses to the main study variables. It must be noted that while there are existing studies of the CPD of UK Human Resource professionals (Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler Smith and Badger 1998, Sadler Smith et al. 2000, Harris Research 1999, 2000), none of these have considered the range of study variables included here, and the present research has included entirely original work, for example in relation to perceived employability. A close examination of the

data was therefore believed necessary before further analysis of the relationships between variables was undertaken. This preliminary analysis has especially facilitated comparisons with some of the descriptive literature reviewed earlier, notably in fields where empirical research is scarce, such as in CPD, or employability. For these reasons this is presented here as a substantial 'results' chapter rather than simply a preliminary examination of the data. The next chapter develops these preliminary findings, in the analysis of further research questions in relation to statistical relationships between the study variables.

CHAPTER 8: STATISTICAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings in respect of the statistical relationships between the research variables. This has been a cross sectional study that examined relationships between professional commitment, attitudes to continuing professional development (as operationalised in the form of the perceived value of CPD), perceptions of employability, perceptions of career success, and engagement with CPD. A literature review on each of the study variables is provided in chapters 2 (professional commitment) and 3 (value of CPD, employability, and career success). An explanation of the source or the construction of each scale is provided in chapter 4 (methodology), and exploratory study results in chapter 7. Chapter 7 also describes the development of an overall measure of CPD engagement (CPDE). A further aspect of the research that was not originally envisaged was that the employability scale (described in chapter 6) might in fact consist of two sub-scales, corresponding to external (tempe1) and internal (tempi1) employability. Analyses in this chapter focus on the main scale, the sub-scales offering potential for further refinement in extensions of this research.

This chapter incorporates an analysis of hypothesised correlations between selected variables (section 8.2), an analysis of a series of research questions reflecting the somewhat exploratory nature of some of the research (section 8.3), and multiple hierarchical regression reflecting the complex nature of some of the relationships between variables developed from the underpinning theory (section 8.4). In the hypothesised relationships, partial correlation has also been used to control for any confounding variables. Control variables which were indicated by the relevant literature as being potentially significant included age, gender, qualification level, professional membership level and the respondent's job level in their employing organisation.

8.2 Results of tests of specific hypotheses

8.2.1 Introduction and hypotheses

From the literature and the exploratory qualitative research, it was believed that some of the relationships between variable could be clearly expressed as hypotheses. These were:

- *H1.Professional commitment (PC) is positively correlated with a positive attitude to continuing professional development (CPDV)*
- *H2. Subjective career success (SCS) is positively correlated with high self-perceived employability (EMP)*

Table 31: Scale Reliabilities and Intercorrelations

Scale	1.	2.	3	4.	5.	6	7	n
1. PC	**.80**	.358**	.377**	.272**	.317**	.361**	.355**	221
2. CPDV		**.93**	.200**	.100	150*	.230**	.379**	221
3. EMP			**.88**	.532**	*.927***	*.824***	.282**	201
4. SCS			.	**.88**	.480**	.492**	.306**	209
5. tempe1					**.85**	.551**	.282**	210
6. tempi1						**.79**	.256**	200
7. CPDE							**.88**	106

** *Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*
* *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)*

BOLD items on diagonal represent alpha reliability coefficients

KEY TO VARIABLES:		
	PC:	Professional Commitment
	CPDV	Perceived Value of CPD
	EMP	Individual Employability
	SCS	Subjective Career Success
	tempe1	Total External Employability
	tempe2	Total Internal Employability
	CPDE	CPD Engagement

As stated in section 4.3 above, the focus through most of the research was on professionals' learning and development in the form of their CPD. A subsidiary aim of

the research was (by necessity) to develop a scale to measure employability, and it was believed that there may be a strong connection between this future-focused construct and the past-focused perceptions of subjective career success, hence hypothesis two.

Table 31 provides the scale reliabilities, and intercorrelations for all the research scales without control variables. All scales used (except andragogy, which was discarded) had very good alpha coefficients, as did the employability subscales and the measure of total CPD engagement. The only issues of missing data were for the employability scales where a number of self-employed respondents were apparently alienated by the references to the internal labour market. The 'CPD Engagement' items also show a lower number of respondents, but these were only administered to the Nottingham respondents and had a fairly low incidence of missing data within that sub-sample (89%).

Before any more detailed analysis of the hypotheses is attempted, brief consideration will be given to the data overall, without at this stage controlling for any intervening variables. First all the main statistical analysis all measures were examined for accuracy of data, missing values, and the assumptions of multivariate analysis (Tabachnik and Fidell 1989) and that they were in the correct scale range. Prior to the main analysis, the data were checked for normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The distribution of the data for each variable is discussed in chapter 7, where it was concluded that while most of the distributions were negatively skewed, this would be expected given the nature of the variables, and that the data sets were large enough for this not to be a problem. Linearity and homoscedasticity were checked by producing a scatter plot for each of the relationships indicated in table 31. All of these indicated a likely positive correlation although the very tight 'cigar shape' that one might ideally see for homoscedasticity was only really present for the correlation of the employability sub-scales with the overall scale. Obviously this is what one would expect to see as the sub-scales are made up from the overall scale, but this brings the further problem of singularity, where items from one scale are used to make up another. It is for this reason that these particular correlations (indicated *in italics* in table 31) should be treated with extreme caution.

Table 32: Pearson Product Moment Correlations between all study variables

Correlations

		professional commitment	total value of cpd	total employability	total career success	total external employability 1	total internal employability 1	total cpd engagement	GENDER	AGE	LEVEL	HIQUAL	ORGPOSN	PROFDATE	QUALYR	PROFYR	EMPT	WORKORG
professional commitment	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.358**	.377**	.272**	.317**	.361**	.355**	-.009	.069	-.088	-.116	-.094	.017	.072	.123	-.136*	.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.891	.319	.193	.086	.211	.808	.284	.068	.044	.069
	N	221	216	198	205	206	198	103	220	210	220	220	180	207	221	221	219	192
total value of cpd	Pearson Correlation	.358**	1.000	.199**	.100	.150*	.230**	.379**	.177**	-.068	-.029	-.001	.043	-.177*	-.104	-.124	-.078	-.114
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.005	.152	.031	.001	.000	.009	.328	.668	.993	.568	.011	.122	.068	.251	.113
	N	216	221	199	206	207	199	105	220	209	220	220	182	207	221	221	219	193
total employability	Pearson Correlation	.377**	.199**	1.000	.532**	.927**	.824**	.282**	.123	-.151*	-.005	-.122	-.251**	-.115	-.046	-.158*	-.126	.360**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.005	.	.000	.000	.000	.005	.082	.039	.941	.086	.001	.116	.521	.025	.076	.000
	N	198	199	201	201	201	201	99	200	189	200	200	174	187	201	201	200	186
total career success	Pearson Correlation	.272**	.100	.532**	1.000	.480**	.492**	.306**	.004	.064	-.154*	.010	-.359**	.082	.042	.047	.081	.262**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.152	.000	.	.000	.000	.002	.950	.368	.027	.888	.000	.252	.544	.503	.247	.000
	N	205	206	201	209	205	201	104	208	197	208	208	178	195	209	209	208	189
total external employability 1	Pearson Correlation	.317**	.150*	.927**	.480**	1.000	.551**	.282**	.103	-.139*	-.057	-.093	-.194**	-.072	-.071	-.112	-.074	.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.031	.000	.000	.	.000	.004	.138	.049	.414	.178	.009	.313	.308	.104	.285	.000
	N	206	207	201	205	211	201	105	210	199	210	210	179	197	211	211	210	191
total internal employability 1	Pearson Correlation	.361**	.230**	.824**	.492**	.551**	1.000	.256*	.116	-.126	.028	-.069	-.266**	-.126	-.032	-.181*	-.121	.344**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.	.011	.101	.084	.696	.329	.000	.082	.655	.010	.089	.000
	N	198	199	201	201	201	201	99	200	189	200	200	174	187	201	201	200	186
total cpd engagement	Pearson Correlation	.355**	.379**	.282**	.306**	.282**	.256*	1.000	.021	-.123	-.080	.129	-.153	-.100	-.348**	-.124	.016	-.163
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.005	.002	.004	.011	.	.829	.233	.415	.188	.161	.309	.000	.206	.869	.115
	N	103	105	99	104	105	99	106	106	96	106	106	86	106	106	106	106	95
GENDER	Pearson Correlation	-.009	.177**	.123	.004	.103	.116	.021	1.000	-.407**	.295**	-.017	.093	-.306**	-.188**	-.419**	.003	-.125
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.891	.009	.082	.950	.138	.101	.829	.	.000	.000	.795	.209	.000	.004	.000	.968	.083
	N	220	220	200	208	210	200	106	233	222	232	233	184	219	233	233	232	195
AGE	Pearson Correlation	.069	-.068	-.151*	.064	-.139*	-.126	-.123	-.407**	1.000	-.263**	-.140*	-.130	.578**	.442**	.670**	.175**	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.319	.328	.039	.358	.049	.084	.233	.000	.	.000	.037	.085	.000	.000	.000	.009	.528
	N	210	209	189	197	199	189	96	222	222	221	175	208	222	222	222	221	186
LEVEL	Pearson Correlation	-.088	-.029	-.005	-.154*	-.057	.028	-.080	.295**	-.263**	1.000	-.092	.184*	-.053	-.072	-.419**	-.070	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.193	.668	.941	.027	.414	.696	.415	.000	.000	.	.164	.012	.433	.273	.000	.289	.165
	N	220	220	200	208	210	200	106	232	221	232	232	184	218	232	232	231	195
HIQUAL	Pearson Correlation	-.116	-.001	-.122	.010	-.093	-.069	.129	-.017	-.140*	-.092	1.000	-.076	.016	-.348**	-.126	-.004	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.993	.086	.888	.178	.329	.188	.795	.037	.164	.	.305	.810	.000	.054	.953	.811
	N	220	220	200	208	210	200	106	233	222	232	233	184	219	233	233	232	195
ORGPOSN	Pearson Correlation	-.094	.043	-.251**	-.359**	-.194**	-.266**	-.153	.093	-.130	.184*	-.076	1.000	-.158*	-.003	-.115	.009	-.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.211	.568	.001	.000	.009	.000	.161	.209	.085	.012	.308	.	.039	.971	.116	.903	.282
	N	180	182	174	178	179	174	86	184	175	184	184	184	170	184	184	184	181
PROFDATE	Pearson Correlation	.017	-.177*	-.115	.082	-.072	-.128	-.100	-.306**	.578**	-.053	.016	-.158*	1.000	.329**	.583**	.212**	.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.808	.011	.116	.252	.313	.082	.309	.000	.000	.433	.810	.039	.	.000	.000	.002	.671
	N	207	207	187	195	197	187	106	219	208	218	219	170	220	220	220	218	181
QUALYR	Pearson Correlation	.072	-.104	-.046	.042	-.071	-.032	-.348**	-.188**	.442**	-.072	-.348**	-.003	.329**	1.000	.430**	.085	.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.284	.122	.521	.544	.306	.655	.000	.004	.000	.273	.000	.971	.000	.	.000	.197	.394
	N	221	221	201	209	211	201	106	233	222	232	233	184	220	234	234	232	195
PROFYR	Pearson Correlation	.123	-.124	-.158*	.047	-.112	-.181*	-.124	-.419**	.670**	-.419**	-.126	-.116	.583**	.430**	1.000	.213**	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068	.066	.025	.503	.104	.010	.206	.000	.000	.000	.054	.116	.000	.000	.	.001	.905
	N	221	221	201	209	211	201	106	233	222	232	233	184	220	234	234	232	195
EMPT	Pearson Correlation	-.136*	-.078	-.126	.081	-.074	-.121	.016	.003	.175**	-.070	-.004	.009	.212**	.085	.213**	1.000	-.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.251	.076	.247	.285	.089	.869	.968	.009	.289	.953	.903	.002	.197	.001	.	.656
	N	219	219	200	208	210	200	106	232	221	231	232	184	218	232	232	232	195
WORKORG	Pearson Correlation	.132	-.114	.360**	.262**	.324**	.344**	-.163	-.125	-.047	-.100	-.017	-.080	.032	.061	.009	-.032	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069	.113	.000	.000	.000	.000	.115	.053	.528	.165	.811	.282	.671	.394	.905	.656	.
	N	192	193	186	189	191	186	95	195	186	195	195	181	181	195	195	195	195

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Data were also examined for the presence of outliers, as suggested in Tabachnik and Fidell (1989:188), and with the use of a $p < .005$ criterion for Mahalanobis distance, and the critical values table provided in Pallant (2001:144), one case (106) with a high outlying value was identified. Re-examination of the original data revealed that this was attributable to one of the independent consultants, actually the one responsible for the quote 'I don't care a fig for formalised CPD.....' (see chapter 7) whose responses tended towards the extremes of the scales. This was not considered unduly problematic, for, as Pallant suggested (2001:page 145):
'Given the size of the data file, it is not unusual for a few outliers to appear,'

With these cautions in mind, it can also be seen that both the hypothesised correlations were positive, as anticipated. Although many of the between-scale correlations are modest, as De Vlaus (2001:176) indicated, in a larger sample (this one is best considered to be moderate) even quite low correlations can be considered statistically significant, but the sample needs to have sufficient power. Power issues with this research are discussed in chapter 4, and generally the sample size would be considered adequate except in the case of 'CPD engagement', where the question items were only administered to the Nottingham respondents. Correlations related to the study hypotheses are discussed in detail below, followed by a discussion of the more open research questions. Hypothesised correlations were also analysed split by gender, as the descriptive statistics and background literature had suggested possible variations due to this, and results for both the hypothesised relationships are presented below in table 33.

Table 33: Observed Correlations, Split by Gender

	total r	N	Sig	males r	N1	Sig	fem r	N2	Sig
H1:PC-CPDV	.358	215	.000	351**	102	.000.	382**	113	.000
H2:SCS -EMP	.532	210	.000	504**	93	.000	.562**	107	.000

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2 - tailed)

There appears to be little difference in either of the hypothesised relationships by gender. For the CPDV scale, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (Sig. = .000) indicated a non-normal distribution, which when split by gender (males = .046, quite close to the threshold of .05, females = .000), the result suggests that the negative skew is attributable to the female respondents. The skewness might be a matter of concern, although as Tabachnick and Fidell (1989:74) suggest:

' - with large samples the significance levels of skewness and kurtosis are not as important as their actual sizes - and the visual appearance of the distribution.'

Manually calculating the observed power of z (Zobs) using the formula given in Pallant (2001:128) revealed a value between -1.96 and +1.96, thus there is no statistically significant difference between the two correlation coefficients, which is as one might expect given the low initial correlation coefficients. For the employability scale, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (Sig. = .200) indicates a normal distribution for the whole scale, which was identical when the data was split by gender.

Similarly, from the descriptive literature reviewed and from chapter six, it was suggested that Fellows may place a greater emphasis on the value of CPD and table 34 suggests that the differences may be greatest in a potentially statistically significant relationship in the correlation of CPDV with professional commitment. Clearly the difference in sample size between Fellows and Members is a matter for caution here, as the lower power of the Fellows sub-group is likely to expose the research to the

Table 34: Observed Correlations by Split by Membership Level

		Fellr	N1	Sig	Membs r	N2	Sig	Z.obs
H1:	PC-CPDV	.511**	51	.000.	.313**	164	.000	.387
H2:	SCS -EMP	..498**	47	.000	.547**	153	.000	

** significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

likelihood of type II errors (eg. failing to reject an incorrect null hypothesis). To further test the statistical significance of the correlation coefficients for Fellows and Members in relation to the hypotheses, the observed value of z was calculated, having first rounded as appropriate, then applying the formula given in Pallant (2001:128) to produce a z obs value as shown in table 34. For H1 this was 0.387, inside the specified bounds of -1.96 to +1.96, thus there is no statistically significant difference in the strength of the correlation between professional commitment and the value of CPD for Members and Fellows. The next section considers the hypotheses and correlations in more detail, including control variables.

8.2.2: Hypothesis 1: *Professional commitment is positively correlated with a positive attitude to CCPD (CPDV)* .

Professional commitment and the perceived value of CPD were found to have a correlation coefficient of .358 which was significant at the 0.01 level, without accounting for any control variables. As suggested by de Vlaus (2002:176), in a larger sample (this is perhaps best regarded as moderate), even quite low correlations can be regarded as significant, and thus the correlation reported here suggests a relatively strong relationship. When a coefficient of determination was calculated this suggested that professional commitment explains just 12.8% of the variance in respondent's scores on the CPDV scale, which for this sample size is moderate. This supported the hypothesis, and as was suggested in 4.3 above, one might expect professionally committed individuals to be both more prepared to fit in with the Institute's policies, and also to be prepared to enhance their own standing as professionals.

Although one would normally not test for confounding variables unless there was some theoretical reason for doing so, in this research project as this is (believed to be) the first time that these variables have been tested together there is no underpinning theory to fall back on in this respect. Partial correlation was therefore used to explore the relationship between the perceived value of CPD and professional commitment, controlling for each of the other variables in turn; and also for the relationship between subjective career success and employability, again controlling for what were considered to be the most likely to be confounding variables in their turn. As Tacq (1997:149) suggested, there are three reasons

why one might utilise partial correlation. First, to establish whether the hypothesised relationship between the two variables is spurious (that is, the control variable is an antecedent to the relationship); and second to test whether the association between the two variables is indirectly causal: is the control variable an intermediate test variable lying between the two? Third, the significance test used in partial correlation will establish whether the partial correlation coefficient can be generalised for the population. All the correlations remained positive, as presented in table 35, and all were significant at the 0.01 level. Some were a little lower and some a little higher.

Table 35: Partial Correlations, Hypothesis 1 (PC and CPDV)

		r	n	%var
zero order correlation		**.358**	**221**	**12.8**
Control for:	employability	.312	195	9.7
	Subjective career success	.346	202	12.0
	External employability	.332	203	11.0
	Internal Employability	.304	195	9.2
	CPD Engagement	.259	100	6.7
	age	.365	206	13.3
	gender	.366	213	13.4
	hiqual (1,2)i	.361	213	13.0
	proflevel (1,2)	.357	213	12.8
	orgposn (1-5)ii	.364	177	13.2

(significance level in all cases is 0.01)

i. **Recoded as graduates/non graduates for this analysis**
ii. **Response 6 'other' coded as 9, 'missing data' for this analysis**

None appeared substantially so except CPDE (engagement) which should be treated with caution in any case due to the lower power of the sample size and the nature of the measure. Employability in its various forms had the greatest effect on the hypothesised correlation, especially internal employability. This was the only organisationally focused variable (ie, relating to the individual in the internal labour market), and may indicate an organisational-professional tension in the individual's pursuit of CPD.

There is little potential for comparison with other studies. Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:69) did not consider the relationship of professional commitment and the perceived value of CPD, electing instead to include *organisational* commitment as a variable for which 'no statistically significant correlation was observed'. This is a notable point of difference between that study and the present one: here, the focus is very much beyond the organisation to the wider profession, although some recognition is made of internal labour market factors in the employability scale.

8.2.3: H2: *Subjective career success (SCS) is positively correlated with high self-perceived employability (EMP)*

As suggested in section 4.3, we might reasonably expect individuals who believe themselves to be successful to also regard themselves as employable. One might also expect individuals who believe themselves to be unsuccessful (if they would honestly self-report as such) to have lower expectations of employability. There was a strong positive correlation (.532) between employability and career success at the 0.01 significance level; and perceptions of career success explain 28.3% (coefficient of determination) of the variation in perceived employability, which again is a strong relationship. Thus the hypothesis is strongly supported. Correlations presented above suggested no significant differences due to gender (table 33) or membership level (table 34).

Partial correlation was used to explore the relationship between subjective career success and self perceived employability, controlling for a range of other variables in turn, as above. Results are presented in table 36. The zero order correlation ($r = .532$ $p \leq .01$) was the strongest amongst the originally hypothesised relationships. The partial correlations for internal and external employability were not considered due to overlap with the employability scale. Of the remaining measures, professional commitment, CPD engagement and organisational position appear the exert the strongest influence on the hypothesised relationship. Professional commitment showed a strong zero-order correlation with the sub-component external employability ($r = .361$, $p \leq .01$), which intuitively one might expect to match well, as both relate to beyond-organisation factors.

Reference back to chapter 6 reveals that in respect of organisational position, those staff at the highest levels, who were graduates, also had the strongest self-perception of employability and career success. Of the other study variables, controlling for their effect made little impact on the correlation coefficient, and the difference was sometimes a matter of the third decimal place.

Table 36: Partial Correlations, Hypothesis 2 (SCS and EMP: whole scale)

		r	n	%var
zero order correlation		**.532**	**199**	**28.3**
Control for:	professional commitment	.481	195	23.1
	subjective career success	.525	196	27.6
	CPD Engagement	.488	96	23.8
	age	.549	186	30.1
	gender	.536	197	28.7
	hiqual (1,2)i	.537	197	28.8
	proflevel (1,2) .	.538	197	28.9
	orgposn(1-5)ii.	.489	171	23.9

All correlations were significant at the p < .01 level

i. Recoded as graduates/non graduates for this analysis
ii. Response 6 'other' coded as 9, 'missing data' for this analysis

As stated in chapter 6, concerns about redundancy between the employability scale and the subjective career success scale can be countered by the assertion that they are conceptually quite different: the subjective career success scale refers to how the sample feel about the success they believe they have achieved already (or more particularly how they feel about it), whereas the employability scale relies on their ability to project into the future to evaluate their likely ability to keep the job they have or to get the job they want. Once again comparison with other studies is limited as this study is believed to be the first time these variables have been examined together. The high correlation may appear to weaken the conclusion presented in chapter 6 that subjective career success and

employability are qualitatively different constructs. However it is believed that they relate to quite different aspects of the professionals' 'subjective timetable'.

8.3 Statistical relationships between the variables

In addition to the hypothesised relationships analysed above, this chapter seeks to provide answers to the following research questions, these aspects of the research being presented in this more open-ended way due to uncertainty about either the nature of the correlations, or due to attributes of the study variables themselves. The selection and construction of the research questions is discussed in chapter 4. This section aims to answer some of these, prior to consideration of the more complex relationships in 8.4.

8.3.1 *RQ11: In what ways is professional commitment statistically related to engagement with CPD (CPDE), subjective career success, and employability?*

As it is believed that this is the first time this relationship has been tested, and there was no strong theoretical justification from the background literature to suggest that the relationships could be hypothesised to be in any particular form, more open, exploratory research questions were used. Intuitively, one might expect more professionally committed people to be more prepared to engage with CPD, to believe they are more successful (or to enjoy the fruits of their success because they are committed), and to

Table 37: The statistical relationships between Professional Commitment, and CPD Engagement, Subjective Career Success, and Employability (main scale), split by gender

	o/a N	o/a *r*	o/a sig	MN	M*r*	Msig	FN	F*r*	F sig
CPDE	103	.355**	.000	45	.307*	.040	58	.404**	.002
SCS	205	.272**	.000	96	.274**	.007	108	.273**	.004
EMP	198	.377**	.000	91	.414**	.000	106	.338**	.000

KEY: **o/a** **whole sample (nb CPDE is Nottingham respondents only)**
MN, M*r*, Msig **males**
FN, F*r*, Fsig **females** ** significant at 0.01 level

believe they are more employable. Correlations between these variables are presented in table 37, with the data split by gender. In chapter 7, even where the differences did not reach statistical significance, some interesting differences by gender could be observed which are explored further here. All of the correlations are statistically significant if not especially high. Female respondents appear to have a higher correlation for CPDE, although calculating the observed power of Z (Zobs) produced a value of .034, between -1.96 and +1.96, so the difference by gender in the correlation with CPDE is not statistically significant, and caution must be exercised here due to the small sample size. Male respondents appear to have a higher correlation for employability, but again the difference was not statistically significant.

Table 38: The statistical relationships between Professional Commitment, and CPD Engagement, Subjective Career Success, and Employability (main scale), split by professional membership level

	o/a N	o/a *r*	o/a sig	MmN	Mm*r*	Mmsig	FlN	Flr	Fl sig
CPDE	103	.355**	.000	79	.345**	..002	24	.376	.071
SCS	205	.272**	.000	154	.333**	.000	50	.072	.877
EMP	198	.377**	.000	151	.404**	.000	46	.256	.086

KEY: **o/a** **whole sample (nb CPDE is Nottingham respondents only)**
Mm, Mm*r*, Mmsig **MCIPD's**
FlN, Fl*r*, Flsig **FCIPD's** ** **sig at 0.01 level**

Results discussed in chapter 7 suggested that splitting the data by membership level may reveal differences in results, which are presented in table 38. The problem here is the smaller sample size for the fellows (FCIPD's), especially with CPDE, which limits the confidence which which conclusions can be drawn.

8.3.2: *RQ25: What are the statistical relationships between employability and CPDV and CPDE?*

This section will first consider the relationship between employability (main scale) and the perceived value of CPD (CPDV), the CPD engagement (CPDE). As was suggested in section 4.3, one might reasonably expect that individuals who believe they should engage with CPD processes to wish to do so because they believe it will make them more employable both within their organisation and outside, and help them to retain their employability in the future. One would therefore reasonably expect individuals who value employability to also value CPD. However one could also argue that individuals who believe their employability is low would engage with CPD, as a 'catch-up' strategy. On the other hand, individuals who do not value CPD could do so because they believe they are employable enough already, or like some of the 'endnotes' responses, they have given up on their employability perhaps because they perceive themselves to be at the end of their career. There is not any particular justification from the theoretical perspective for arguing one way or another, principally due to the scarcity of published work. For this reason this research question is best regarded as exploratory, and therefore not expressable as a research hypothesis.

A moderate correlation coefficient was reported of $r = .200$, although this was statistically significant ($p \leq .005$). However as Pallant (2001:120) noted:
'Although statistically significant, the practical significance of a correlation of .2 is very limited. You should focus on Pearson's *r* and the amount of shared variance between the two variables.'
A very modest coefficient of determination of 4.00% was reported. Thus the relationship can, somewhat cautiously, be supported, although variations in perceived employability only explain 4% of the variations in perceived CPD. It is not possible to make comparisons with other studies due to the lack of empirical work on employability. Van der Heijden's (2002) study for example did not include CPD although she did examine a number of related topics such as knowledge, skill requirement, and 'individual expert performance' (page 51). She found no significant relationship between these and her operationalisation of employability, although her samples were smaller.

Table 39: Partial correlation (EMP and CPDV)

		r	n	%var	sig.
zero order correlation		**.200**	**197**	**4.0**	**.005**
Control for:	pc	.074	195	0.5	.300
	scs	.173	196	3.0	.015
	CPDE	.018	96	1.1	.307
	age	.192	186	3.7	.008
	gender	.182	196	3.3	.01
	hiqual (1,2)i	.201	196	4.0	.005
	proflevel (1,2)	.199	196	4.0	.005
	orgposn(1-5)ii.	.217	171	4.7	.004

i. Recoded as graduates/non graduates for this analysis
iii. Response 6 'other' coded as 9, 'missing data' for this analysis

Partial correlation was used to explore the relationship between self perceived employability and the perceived value of CPD, controlling for a range of other variables in turn, as above. Table 39 reveals some very substantial differences between the zero-order correlation and the partial correlations, notably relating to controlling for professional commitment and CPD engagement, suggesting that these may most likely be intervening variables with a not inconsiderable influence. Thus employability and CPDV may appear correlated, but their apparent relationship is reduced to a statistically non-significant one (De Vaus 2002:340) when controlling for the influence of professional commitment and also CPD engagement, noting the smaller sample size for the latter as a weakness in the data. Cramer (1994:240) suggested that: 'a correlation, of close to zero may mean that the relationship between the two variables is curvilinear-', but in any case this one is still non-significant. In addition, the correlation coefficients controlling for internal and external employability were excluded due to overlap arising from shared items with the employability scale. For the other variables, there appears to be a small effect for age, gender and subjective career success, a barely discernible effect due to qualification level or professional membership level, while organisational position appears to contribute to a stronger correlation coefficient. Tacq (1997: 146 et seq.) suggested that this circumstance

arises because there is a strong association between the control variable, and each of the other two variables, although table 32 reveals only a statistically significant negative correlation between position in the organisation and employability ($r = -.251$, $p \leq .01$). Above, significance levels were included in the table due to the extreme variations found in the results. As before, potential for comparison with other studies is limited as the related studies did not use control variables.

Table 40: Partial correlation (EMP and CPDE)

		r	n	%var	sig.
zero order correlation		**.282**	**97**	**8.0**	**.005**
Control for:	pc	.171	96	3.0	.092
	scs	.148	96	2.0	.146
	CPDV	.228	96	5.2	..024
	age	.27	93	8.0	.009
	gender	.282	96	8.0	.005
	hiqual (1,2)i	.30	96	9.0	.002
	proflevel (1,2)	.283	96	8.0	.005
	orgposn(1-5)ii.	.255	83	6.5	.019

In respect of the relationship between employability and CPD engagement, again this is somewhat problematic as individuals who perceive themselves as employable may well engage in CPD to sustain that employability, or they may well have given up on CPD because they believe they are employable enough already. On the other hand, if they do not believe that they are employable, they may either engage in CPD to improve this, or give up. As in the relationship with CPDV, there was no underpinning theory to fall back on. The smaller sample size arising from the use of the CDPE variable is potentially problematic.

In most cases as shown on table 40 there is a major effect on the strength of the relationship between the variables employability and CPDE engagement although clearly it is best to ignore the two employability sub-scales due to problems of singularity. It is noteworthy that controlling for age, gender and professional level had no particular effect

on the strength of the relationship, and controlling for qualification level actually produced a marginal improvement.

8.3.3: *RQ 18: What are the statistical relationships between subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD (CPDV)*

As suggested in section 4.3 above, this research question needs approaching with care, and this concern reflects the relatively untested nature of the research as it is believed to

Figure 38: Scatter Plot of Subjective Career Success and the Value of CPD

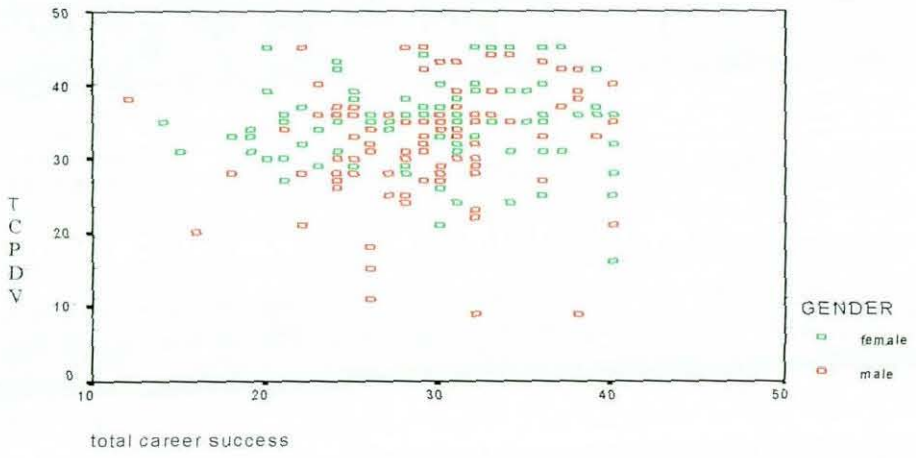


Table 41: Testing the statistical significance of the gender difference between correlation coefficients for subjective career success (SCS) and CPDV: r values, z scores

Males	r1	=	.182	Females	r2	=	.019
	N1	=	97		N2	=	108
	Z1	=	.182		z2	=	.020

be the first time many of the study variables have been examined together. On one hand one might reasonably expect individuals to engage with CPD because they believe it will help them to become or remain successful. On the other hand individuals who feel successful already may feel they have no particular reason for engaging in CPD. Here,

the correlation is very low (.1) and career success only explains around 1% of the variability in CPDV which is also very low. Owen and Jones (1982:364) point out that: - 'a low correlation does not necessarily mean a low degree of association. After all, the coefficient we have calculated measures the strength of a linear relationship. The relationship may be very high, but curvilinear, and our coefficient would not indicate this.' To establish whether this was the case a scatter plot was produced, but this does not indicate a strong relationship or a curvilinear one and also reveals the presence of many outliers. The scatter plot was examined for example to see if respondents at both extremes of career success value CPD more highly but this could not be ascertained. The distribution of the data suggested that gender may be an influencing factor but further investigation (see table 41) revealed that this was not statistically significant. Calculating the observed value of z for differences by gender in the relationship of subjective career success and the value of CPD (z obs = 1.14) suggests that there is not a significant difference between the two correlation coefficients by gender, again attributable to the low initial correlations. Controlling for other variables as above using partial correlation did not produce any statistically significant result: the initial correlation was simply too low.

In a similar fashion as for some of the other previously untested relationships, the relationship between these two variables was likely to be problematic as there was no theoretical reason to suggest that, for example, people who believe they are successful should place a higher value on CPD (to want to do it to make them more successful), or to not be concerned about CPD, (because they believe they are successful enough already). Conversely, would individuals who believed them-selves to be unsuccessful value CPD because they believe it may make them successful, or not value it because they have 'given up' on career success (or didn't value career success anyway). In the event, no real correlation could be identified between the study variables, and the apparent difference in *r* values produced by splitting the data by gender was not statistically significant, partly because the correlations were very low to begin with. As above, using partial correlation to control for potential confounding variables did not produce any improvement in correlation coefficients, probably because the initial

Table 42: Zero-order and Partial correlations, Employability and CPD engagement

		r	n	%var	sig.
zero order correlation		**.306**	**104**	**9.4**	**.002**
Control for:	pc	.233	100	5.4	.018
	scs	.192	96	3.7	.058
	CPDV	.291	101	8.5	.003
	age	.317	93	10.1	.002
	gender	.306	101	9.4	.002
	hiqual (1,2)i	.308	101	9.5	.002
	proflevel (1,2)	.298	101	8.9	.002
	orgposn(1-5)ii.	.273	83	7.5	.012

correlation was quite low. Intuitively, one might have expected there to be a strong, positive correlation for subjective career success with the perceived value of CPD. For this sample, there is not.

Results presented in chapter 7 suggest that the sample do *engage with* CPD, perhaps whether they value it or not. There was a statistically significant correlation between subjective career success and CPD engagement [$\underline{r} = .306$, $\underline{n} = 104$, $\underline{p} \leq .002$], although the sample size is smaller. Partial correlation rarely produced an improvement in the coefficient, except for when age was controlled for. Referring back to chapter 7, it was observed that younger members who were enjoying early career success were also more likely to engage in CPD.

8.4 Multiple hierarchical regression

The two main variables of interest in this research project are the perceived value of CPD (CPDV) and self-perceived individual employability (EMP). The statistical relationships analysed above indicate that a more complex relationship between these may exist than suggested by simple correlations. For example:

8.4.1 ***RQ30:*** *Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of value attributed to CPD?*

Clearly a problem of this complexity requires the application of multiple hierarchical regression. As suggested in Tabachnik and Fidell (1989:188) and Pallant (2001:136), before proceeding the data were examined for assumptions of violation of multiple regression. Sample size is not considered a problem for most of the scales, exceeding the recommendation of 15 subjects per predictor variable, although the smaller sample size for CPDE meant that this was not considered in the statistical relationships at this stage. Multicollinearity was not an issue as none of the variables correlated at .9 or above (Pallant 2001:137). Singularity, where the scale is made up of components of another scale, prohibited the inclusion of internal and external employability at this stage. Normality and homoscedasticity were discussed at the start of the chapter, where it was concluded that the data were not ideal in these respects, but probably adequate given the reasonable sample size.

Hierarchical regression was employed, using the procedures outlined in Pallant (2001:147) and De Vaus (2002:374 et seq.). Model 1, with predictors organisational position (ie. job level), qualification level, gender, professional membership level and age, explained 4.1% of the variance in CPDV. Model 2, with the addition of professional comitment, subjective career success, and employability explained 17.6% of the variance in CPDV, and was statistically significant. There were only two variables found to make a statistically significant unique contribution, these being professional commitment (Beta = .343, $p < .001$), and gender (Beta = .174, $p = .029$). Beta weights and their statistical significance are shown below in table 43, including a brief summary of the 'direction' in which the variables were coded.

From this it can be concluded that:

- Together the self-reported 'attitudinal' variables from step 2 add only moderately to an (already modest) contribution from biographical ones as predictors of total self-rated CPDV.
- Together, the two types of variables account for just under 18% of the variance in CPDV

Table 43: Multiple Regression Analysis showing predictors of the perceived value of CPD

Predictor variable	Adjusted R^2	Statistical significance of increase in R^2	Beta weight in final equation	Significance of Beta Weight
Step 1	.01	$p < .001$		
Orgposn			.09	NS
Hiqual			.05	NS
Gender			.17	$p = .029$
Level (prof.)			-.07	NS
Age			-.03	NS
Step 2	.14	$p < .001$		
Professional Commitment			.34	$p < .001$
Career Success			-.02	NS
Total employability			.08	NS

Coding of variables, as follows:

Orgposn	**(level in organisation):**	**from 1 = strategic, to 5 = Operational (in 5 groups)**
Hiqual	**(qualification level)**	**1 = sub-degree qualifications**
		2 = BA/BSc. 0r higher
Gender		**1 = male, 2 = female**
Level	**(CIPD membership)**	**1 = Fellow, 2 = Member**
Age	**(in 5 categories)**	**1 = < 34, 5 = 55+**

- The most powerful predictor of the perceived value of CPD is professional commitment, in that the higher a score on this measure, the more likely an individual is to value CPD
- Gender is of some importance . In chapter 6 it was seen that women tend to score a little higher on CPDV than men. This multiple regression analysis confirms that the finding stands, even after controlling for other variables.
- Organisational position, being a graduate or not, professional membership level, and whether one is a M ember or Fellow of the institute appear to hardly have any influence at all.

Expressing the above as an additive model (Tacq 1997: 126), the best-fitting linear equation is therefore:

CPDV = (.09 x orgposn) + (.05 x hiqual) + (.17 x gender) + (-.07 x professional level) + (.03 x age) + (.34 x pc) + (-.02 x Career success) + (.08 x total employability)

In chapter 7 (7.3.2) it was determined that female scores for CPDV were higher than males, the difference being statistically significant. From the CIPD's point of view, while the above results do not reveal especially strong influencing factors on the perceived value of CPD other than professional commitment, there are no factors that can be singled out as particularly undermining the relationship either.

8.4.2: Employability as the dependent variable

Turning the problem around, a further research question can be phrased as:
RQ31: *Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of self perceived total employability?*
In this case, model 1, with the biographical predictors of organisational position (job level), gender, age, qualification level, and professional membership level, explained 13.2% of the variance in self perceived employability, and was statistically significant ($p < .001$. Model 2, with the addition of professional commitment, the perceived value of CPD and subjective career success, explained a further 28% of the variation in employability, and was a statistically significant result ($p < .001$). A number of variables

made a statistically significant unique contribution to the model, being subjective career success (Beta = .438 $p < .001$), professional commitment (Beta = .227, $p < .001$), age (Beta = -.195, $p = .004$), qualification level (Beta = -.133, $p = .033$); with a not quite significant contribution from organisational position (Beta = -.121, $p = .067$). With employability as the dependent variable therefore, the best-fitting linear equation is: Employability = (-.12 x orgposn) + (-.13 x hiqual) + (.04 x gender) + (.03 x professional level) + -.20 x age) + (.23 x professional commitment) + (.44 x career success) + (.06 x CPDV)

Table 44: Multiple Regression Analysis showing predictors of the perceived value of Employability

Predictor variable	Adjusted R^2	Statistical significance of increase in R^2	Beta weight in final equation	Significance of Beta Weight
Step 1	.11	$p < .001$		
Orgposn			-.12	$p = .067$
Hiqual			-.13	$p = .033$
Gender			.04	NS
Level			.03	NS
Age			-.20	$p = .067$
Step 2	.38	$p < .001$		
Professional commitment			.23	$p < .001$
Career Success			.44	$p < .001$
Value of CPD			.06	NS

(Variables coded as in table 43 above)

It can therefore be concluded that:

- The attitudinal/self-report variables collectively add highly statistically significantly to biographical ones as the predictors of total self-reported employability
- Together the two types of variable account for over one-third of the variance in employability

- The most powerful predictor of employability is subjective career success: the more successful a person believes they have been or are, the more they think they are employable.
- Professional commitment also influences employability in a statistical sense, although in a 'real world' sense it would be inaccurate to infer that this is a causal relationship.
- Age is also influential: the older an individual is, the less employable they believe they are. This was confirmed by many of the 'open' comments made at the end of the questionnaires, and supports the findings of Van der Heijden (2002).
- Qualification level also has a modest effect: possession of degree-level qualifications adds to a perception of greater employability for this sample.
- Organisational position matters to a very small extent, although the relationship was not quite statistically significant. Senior HR managers believe they are more employable, perhaps assuming that they could secure similar or better roles elsewhere, or are unlikely to face redundancy.
- Gender, professional level, and the value ascribed to CPD are not important in explaining the variance in self-perceived employability. The latter finding begs the question of, if individuals who do not have high levels of professional commitment don't see an 'employability' benefit in engaging in CPD, what is their motivation for doing it? This may well be an issue for the CIPD.

Overall these results confirm many of the preliminary analyses reported in chapter 7.

8.5 Concluding comments

8.5.1 Introduction

This chapter has considered statistical relationships between research variables, on three levels. First, two of the relationships were expressed as formal hypotheses based on conclusions drawn from the literature review and the initial qualitative fieldwork. Second, a series of more open research questions were framed to reflect the exploratory, uncertain and untested nature of some of the relationships, principally because this was the first time that many of the variables had been investigated together. In some cases (eg. the

employability scale) this was the first time they had been used in field research at all. Third, the developing body of research suggested that some of the relationships between the variables were more complex than could be expressed by simple hypotheses, requiring the use of a more sophisticated technique such as multiple hierarchical regression. This was incorporated with some caution, as some aspects of some of variables (eg. normality, sample size, singularity) violated the assumptions of multiple regression and thus led to their exclusion (CPD engagement, and the employability sub-scales) from this stage of the research. Nonetheless, one of the models proposed at this stage revealed a strong and statistically significant contribution from a range of variables.

8.5.2 Hypotheses: conclusions

H1: *professional commitment is positively correlated with a positive attitude to CPD* was supported. A correlation coefficient of .358 was reported, significant at the 0.01 level, with a coefficient of determination of 12.8%. With this sample this result suggests a moderate to strong relationship. Little difference was observed when the data were split by gender, and differences attributable to level of membership did not reach statistical significance. CPD engagement was the most significant control variable, although this was only derived from part of the overall sample.

H2: *Subjective career success is positively correlated with high self perceived employability* was strongly supported, with a correlation coefficient of .538, significant at the 0.01 level, with a coefficient of determination of 28.3%. Splitting the data did not reveal statistically significant variations in the results. Partial correlation controlling for all the other study variables revealed that professional commitment, CPD engagement and organisational position appeared to exert the strongest influence on the relationship.

8.5.3 Research Questions: conclusions

RQ11: *In what ways is professional commitment statistically related to engagement with CPD, subjective career success, and employability?*

These relationships were considered with a number of 'health warnings', including the smaller sample size for CPDE (Nottingham respondents only). Correlations were positive and statistically significant (if sometimes modest), although differences by gender and membership level were not statistically significant, the latter categorisation suffering from a very uneven split in sample size.

RQ18: *What are the statistical relationships between subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD (CPDV)*

Although subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD would intuitively appear to be part of a similar value set, the correlation coefficients produced were low, and no relationship could be established, nor could any particular influences be identified. By contrast, a strong correlation was identified between employability and CPD engagement (see below), suggesting that CPD may be a part of the professionals' future-orientated mindset, rather than the 'past' focus of career success. That is to say, the evidence is more consistent with the idea that engaging in CPD is a manifestation of perceptions of professional commitment and employability, than with the idea that CPD is undertaken in order to combat a lack of employability

RQ25: *What are the statistical relationships between employability and CPDE and CPDV?*

The potential relationships between employability and CPDV and CPDE were expressed as research questions as there were a range of potential combinations, and only one of the measures had been derived from previous research (CPDV: Sadler- Smith and Badger 1998). The relationship of self-perceived employability with CPDV revealed a moderate correlation coefficient of .200 although this was quite statistically significant (.005). Although there appeared that there might be differences attributable to gender, these were not statistically significant, and although Fellows revealed a higher r than Members, this should be treated with caution due to their smaller sample size. Partial correlation, testing for confounding variables, was inconclusive as where there appeared to be a modest (but

different) correlation this was not statistically significant, while controlling for qualification level, age, professional membership level and organisational position had hardly any effect at all. The effect is substantially due to the sample size, while testing for the effect of control variables was either inconclusive or did not reach statistical significance. Results relating to employability and CPD engagement revealed the presence of a number of intervening variables, but also supported the perception that results from such a small sample could well be problematic for the research overall.

There appears to be only a modest connection between expectations of future employability, and the perceived value of CPD. Perhaps unsuprisingly given that it is the profession that 'drives' CPD, the strongest correlation between CPD and any other variable is (though still only a modest correlation) to do with their professional commitment. This suggests that the respondents to the survey may perceive CPD to be a valuable activity for its own sake, and are prepared to engage with only slightly because they are loyal to the profession, but more that they see an inherent value in doing so. Looking back to the descriptive statistics in chapter 7, what CPD they do engage with is primarily related to job-role and organisation-centred activities rather than 'professional' or beyond-the-job learning and development. The descriptive statistics (see for example section 7.2.3 above) had confirmed the findings of earlier studies (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) who had found a weak interest in CPD especially among older males, perceived in that research as a problem given (page 71):
' - the exhortations to 'lifelong learning' contained in many CPD policies and the demographic changes in the labour market'.

As younger employees become scarcer due to changing demographics, and as employees remain in the labour force longer due to increasing retirement ages, the need to engage in CPD becomes greater as respondents age, even though they (especially if they are male) may feel least inclined to do so. This need is compounded by the increased time since the males engaged in qualification based updating *and* the shortening half-life of knowledge. This aspect of the study has potential for comparison with other professional groups, perhaps those where CPD is mandatory and relates to the professionals' continuing 'licence to practice'. However findings in respect of age should be treated with caution as one can only realistically make conclusions about changing attitudes over life-span

through longitudinal study: will the present generation of young professionals lose or retain their enthusiasm for CPD as they get older?

8.5.4: Multiple regression: conclusions

More complex relationships in relation to the two main study variables (the value of CPD and employability) were considered using multiple hierarchical regression, framed as two further research questions.

RQ30: *Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of value attributed to CPD?*

This was considered using a two-stage model, with the predictors in model 1 being organisational position, qualification level, gender, professional membership level and age. This explained 4.1% of the variance in CPD. Model 2 included professional commitment, subjective career success and employability, and explained an additional 13.5% of the variance in CPDV. Only professional commitment and gender made a statistically significant unique contribution. This is congruent with the correlations discussed in earlier chapter 8. It is suggested that men may need more encouragement to engage in CPD than women.

Overall given the enthusiasm that the CIPD have shown for promoting CPD in general (Jones and Fear 1994, Glover 2001), and their brand of CPD in particular (CIPD 2002a, 2002b), then one could be forgiven for expecting that their membership might share this enthusiasm. At this stage we may cautiously infer that they do, but that this is only influenced to a very limited extent by how successful they believe they are already. In addition those individuals who are not very professionally committed may be unlikely to respond positively to exhortations to undertake CPD.

RQ31: *Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of self perceived total employability?*

The biographical predictors in model 1 (as above) explained 10.7% of the variance in employability, while the addition of the attitudinal variables in model 2 (CPDV, subjective career success and professional commitment) explained a total of 41% of the variation,

and was statistically significant ($p < .001$). A number of variables made a statistically significant unique contribution. First, individuals who score highly on career success are more likely to believe that they are highly employable. Highly professionally committed people are also likely to believe they are more employable. Perceived employability declined dramatically with age. Possession of a degree had a positive impact on perceived employability across all age, professional and job categories. Organisational position made a modest contribution to the model, the highest scores being from females at the highest organisational levels. .

Employability, as a construct with a focus inside and outside the organisation, thus reinforces the concept of the professional as being someone relatively independent of organisational ties, in charge of their own destiny. The highest employability in the survey was enjoyed by those individuals who were young, had enjoyed early promotion to 'first line manager' level, graduates, and who were highly committed to the profession.

Self-perceived employability in the study sample was very strongly linked to perceptions of subjective career success, although this may reflect the underlying nature of the constructs being measured as both are essentially positively framed constructs relating to an individual's (generally) positive self perceptions. They are seen, in this research, as measuring distinct aspects of the professionals overall self-concept, as past and present (career success) and future (employability) respectively. Their distinctive nature is discussed in chapter 6.

Finally, considering the two research questions together, it may be concluded that the variables in the research explained more of the variance in self-perceived employability than in the value attached to CPD. The next, and final, chapter draws out some overall themes from the study as a whole.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This thesis has presented the findings of a study of U.K. Human Resource professionals and factors relating to their Continuing Professional Development, their professional commitment, their subjective career success, and their self-perceptions of employability. This chapter presents the overall conclusions to the results. Results from the research are then summarised in four sections, where specific research questions are considered in each case. Each of these four sections includes findings, the fit to the literature where available, the limitations of that stage of the research, conceptual and theoretical implications, practical and professional implications, and suggestions for further research.

First, section 9.2 summarises the qualitative research that was undertaken with a convenient sample drawn from a range of professional organisations, which aimed to explore their attitudes to commitment, their profession and CPD, and to provide a focus for the continuing research. Section 9.3 summarises responses to research questions in relation to preliminary analyses, presented in this project as a major component of the results as the findings were considered intrinsically interesting and of value in themselves, in addition to the originality of a number of aspects of the research.
Section 9.4 summarises the answers to research questions in relation to the employability scale developed specifically for this project, as no appropriate scale had been discovered prior to the field research being undertaken. Section 9.5 summarises responses to research questions in relation to statistical relationships between the variables. Some of the research issues were framed as hypotheses, and the results of and implications from these are considered. Due to the exploratory nature of some aspects of the research, some issues were framed as more open research questions, some of which addressed complex relationships through multiple hierarchical regression. The final section (9.6) presents some overall conclusions and reflections on the research project.

This research project grew out of the author's involvement with professional organisations and professional education, and research on the changing nature of work and careers that initially focused on the psychological contract. Although it has evolved significantly, the

research presented has the potential to enhance understanding of the work and careers of professionals in organisations, and their attitudes to their work, their careers, and their professional development. The author's close links with the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development afforded an opportunity to study first hand a sample of professional workers, to explore their attitudes to a range of variables, and to examine the relationship between these variables.

The originality of the research is reinforced by the fact that a number of the study variables were individually under-researched (the perceived value of CPD, CPD engagement, employability, and to a lesser extent subjective career success with a professional sample) and collectively their possible relationships had not been considered. A further, somewhat unexpected, outcome of the research was the successful development of a distinctive measure for employability that has initially presented a high internal reliability coefficient and the potential for further study.

9.2 The Qualitative Research

9.2.1 Research themes

The qualitative research represented the first primary data collection undertaken in this study, and had the general aim of focusing and refining the research Research questions at this stage fell into three groups, relating to professions and professional organisations (RQ1-3), to continuing professional development and learning (RQ4-RQ5), and to employability and careers (RQ6-RQ8).

9.2.2: Research questions relating to professionals and professional organisations

RQ1: What are professionals' attitudes to commitment as potentially extending beyond the organisation?
RQ2: How do professionals perceive their relative relationship to other groups and bodies?
RQ3: How committed are professionals to their professional organisation?

In respect of RQ1, one of the main outcomes of the qualitative research was the confirmation of professional workers as the main focus of the study. The researcher wished to emphasise the beyond-organisation aspects of the individual mindset, and managerial professionals, even organisationally located ones, appeared to have the potential to facilitate this. This had been reflected in the literature on the changing nature of work and careers, especially through the 1990's, such as the decline of the linear career concept (Arnold 1997), and the impact on all workers, including professionals in organisations arising from changes in organisations structures and the business environment (Jackson 1996, Herriot and Stickland 1996, Rajan et al. 1998). Relatively few respondents used career networking (Arthur and Rousseau 1996).

In relation to RQ2, respondents held variable perceptions of the status of their professional group. A few perceived change within their particular employment sector as an opportunity rather than a threat (eg. the AUA), but more expressed strong concerns about the future of their organisations and the role their profession would play in it (eg., some CIPD respondents). As suggested by Morrow and Goetz (1988), Greenwood and Lachman (1996), and Critten (1999), the number and scope of professions appears to be growing, and a small number of respondents were from the new or 'emergent' professional groups, such as University Administrators or Careers Advisors, who were in no doubt themselves as to their professional status even if this was not widely perceived. Others, such as personnel specialists or accountants reflected the growth in influence of the organisational-managerial professions reported by Elliot (1972), Watkins et al. (1992), and Ackroyd (1996).

In respect of RQ3 (professional commitment), while attachment to the organisation was still important for many respondents, some had strong attachments in the form of specific responsibilities to the professional organisation, and strongly identified with the profession, including professional values (Morrow and Goetz 1988 Morrow and Wirth 1989) . Both organisational and professional (and especially the latter) relationships could compromise work-life balance (Kaschube et al. 1996), especially local or national professional association involvement, and respondents expressed concern about this, often in relation to family commitments. This is potentially a novel perpective on work-life balance which is normally only seen to relate to organisational demands, not professional

ones. Gruen et al. (2000) had concluded that there was a need for professional organisations to build connections to members through communication, and while some respondents had strong links through task involvement, most were relatively detached.

9.2.3 Research questions relating to CPD and learning

The second main group of research questions addressed at the qualitative stage referred to CPD and learning. For example:

RQ4: Whose needs, if anyone's do professionals perceive and being served by Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Respondents emphasised the need to engage in updating but saw this as serving employers' needs rather than their own (or the professions), this confirming the findings of other studies, which had also reported some resistance to record-keeping for CPD (Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Blyth 2000, Harris 2000, Tyler 2001).

Also in relation to CPD:

RQ5: Do the sample perceive the need to engage in CPD, and what are their future priorities?

Respondents were consistent in their identification of the need to engage in CPD, while future priorities principally related to keeping up to date with job-related, organisational or legislative changes rather than a focus on individual growth and personal development. Qualification based updating was not seen as a priority for this sample as many were very well qualified already. This positive orientation to learning, for this sample, may well have been reflective of their prior (positive) experiences of learning (Maguire and Fuller 1997, Tamkin and Hillage 1997), even though the learning undertaken had a very pragmatic 'job-survival' focus.

9.2.4: Research questions relating to employability and careers

The third group of research questions at this stage related to perceptions of employability and careers: for example,

RQ6: How are professionals in organisations making sense of changing work patterns and careers?

RQ7: What are the implications of changing work patterns and careers for these professionals in organisations?

Many respondents expressed perceptions of their use, or expendability, in an employment relationship, reflecting themes from the literature in respect of transactional attitudes to work and reduced levels of organisational commitment as a result of downsizing (Inkson 1995, Herriott and Pemberton 1995, McKendall and Margulis 1996). Although none were in 'post-corporate' employment at the time (Pieperl and Baruch 1997), some respondents known to the researcher have subsequently moved into this pattern of work. Longitudinal study with the qualitative sample, tracking changes throughout the longer span of their careers, may be a long term possibility. It was also clear that some respondents looked to beyond work factors, such as involvement with the profession or leisure activities as a focus for self-fulfilment (Mirvis and Hall 1994). Some respondents described major upheavals in their work history, in line with Kessler and Undy's (1996) CIPD-sponsored study, such as re-organisation, redundancy, or new working practices. A minority of respondents expected very significant organisational and personal (career) change in the near future, where the latter is likely to be a consequence of the former, and not of their choosing.

RQ8: What do the sample understand by the term 'employability'?

Employability was perceived as having both internal (within the organisation) and external (labour market and professional) dimensions, in line with literature findings (Tamkin and Hillage 1998, Rajan 2000). Respondents also confirmed the dual meaning attached to employability as relating to both an HR strategy applied to the workforce collectively, and as individual perceptions relating to one's future career, the latter being adopted as a working model for this project.

9.2.5: Limitations of the qualitative study

The limitations of the qualitative study included that it ignored those individuals who worked outside of an organisational context, this being an unintended weakness of the 'convenient sample' selected. As Sekaran (2000:278) suggested, this was a good way of getting 'basic information quickly and efficiently', but almost certainly suffered from

unintended bias as it was drawn from the researcher's personal network, and was thus more likely to include graduates and individuals within a limited age range than would be the case for either the general population, or a sampling population such as that employed for the quantitative study. In practice, some aspects of 'judgement sampling' also applied here, the respondents being 'subjects who are in the best position to provide the information required' (Sekaran 2000:278), even though, according to the same source, this may:

'curtail the generalisability of the findings because we are using a sample of experts who are conveniently available to us'. A further unintended bias was that most of the respondents were female, and in public sector employment.

9.2.6: Conceptual and theoretical implications

The qualitative study made an essential contribution to the project overall in that it provided the opportunity to identify the main focus (professional workers, CPD, employability), and engaged the researcher with the collection of primary data. It confirmed the need for a survey approach, as the literature suggested that this would be the best way to approach the particular set of variables and to generate a large enough data set for multivariate analysis. Crucially, the conceptual and theoretical implications of the qualitative study were that it enabled the researcher to identify a stimulating direction of the research with the potential for an original contribution appropriate to the changing nature of 21st century work relationships. For example, in respect of the study variables, the qualitative research contributed:

- that the study would initially focus on attitudes to a range of variables: CPD engagement was added later
- the identification of varying levels of 'value' attributed to different professions or occupations both inside and outside organisations: a key component of the employability matrix (figures 2 and 3)
- the confirmation of professional commitment as opposed to organisational commitment as representing a key frame of reference
- a focus on learning through continuing professional development as a possible strategy for keeping ahead of change

unintended bias as it was drawn from the researcher's personal network, and was thus more likely to include graduates and individuals within a limited age range than would be the case for either the general population, or a sampling population such as that employed for the quantitative study. In practice, some aspects of 'judgement sampling' also applied here, the respondents being 'subjects who are in the best position to provide the information required' (Sekaran 2000:278), even though, according to the same source, this may:

'curtail the generalisability of the findings because we are using a sample of experts who are conveniently available to us'. A further unintended bias was that most of the respondents were female, and in public sector employment.

9.2.6: Conceptual and theoretical implications

The qualitative study made an essential contribution to the project overall in that it provided the opportunity to identify the main focus (professional workers, CPD, employability), and engaged the researcher with the collection of primary data. It confirmed the need for a survey approach, as the literature suggested that this would be the best way to approach the particular set of variables and to generate a large enough data set for multivariate analysis. Crucially, the conceptual and theoretical implications of the qualitative study were that it enabled the researcher to identify a stimulating direction of the research with the potential for an original contribution appropriate to the changing nature of 21st century work relationships. For example, in respect of the study variables, the qualitative research contributed:

- that the study would initially focus on attitudes to a range of variables: CPD engagement was added later
- the identification of varying levels of 'value' attributed to different professions or occupations both inside and outside organisations: a key component of the employability matrix (figures 2 and 3)
- the confirmation of professional commitment as opposed to organisational commitment as representing a key frame of reference
- a focus on learning through continuing professional development as a possible strategy for keeping ahead of change

- a conceptualisation of employability is including in-organisation and beyond-organisation elements, later refined through further literature analysis into the matrices presented as figures 2 and 3.

Following this, further conceptual development and literature review led to the refinement of the main research issues, and development of the survey instrument. This was then pilot-tested with students members (convenient, captive!) from a range of professional bodies (CIPD, CIMA, CIPS). Although the original intention had been to undertake a comparative study; the emerging literature, rich qualitative data from selected CIPD respondents (and practical considerations) increasingly pointed to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development as the likely source of the main research sample.

9.2.7: Further qualitative research?

Although the main contribution of this stage of the research was conceptual and theoretical, rather than practical and professional, this was a vital element, even a turning point, in the life of the project as a whole. Paradoxically, although some of the limitations identified above relate to the researchers' orientation towards quantitative methodology, the survey developed as a result of the earlier qualitative research has raised a number of issues which are probably best addressed by qualitative methods. These include an investigation of the needs and development priorities of self-employed consultants, including the ways in which such individuals may use personal and professional networking to facilitate learning and personal advancement. A further issue for qualitative investigation arises from the survey research: why did the data for all the main scales reveal a mid-life dip in mean scores? As an overall evaluation, the qualitative research contributed far more than was originally envisaged, and may well form a significant part of a future research agenda.

9.3: Research questions addressed by the preliminary analysis of data

9.3.1: Preliminary analysis

The main outcomes of the research project were realised by the analysis of the survey data. Descriptive statistics by age, gender, level of seniority in the organisation, qualification level (simplified as whether the respondents were graduates or not) and professional membership level were considered, as some of the most relevant literature (eg. Nabi 1999, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Harris 2000,) had suggested that there may be variations in scale results due to these factors, and these were subsequently examined as control variables in the hypothesised relationships. A further rationale for their inclusion was that some of them had statistically significant correlations with some of the study variables (Jankowicz 2000). The attributes of the sample (age profile, gender, FCIPD's/MCIPD's, employment characteristics) were consistent with those observed in similar CIPD-based studies (eg. Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Sadler-Smith et al. 2000, Harris Research 2000), as was the response rate. Younger respondents tended to be better qualified and female.

Data were negatively skewed for all the scales, some strongly, this reflecting the nature of the variables. As a general comment, apparent variations presented visually were not often found to be statistically significant on further investigation. The research was undertaken with a sample of two hundred and thirty four Members and Fellows of the UK Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development in the Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire region, with the support of the CIPD's local branch. While the generalisability of the research is limited by the specific nature of the sample, it is hoped that in the future this may develop into a body of research drawing in other professionals, and wider sections of the workforce. All of the scales included in the analysis were found to have at least satisfactory internal correlation coefficients. Scale reliabilities are presented in chapter 8.

The following sub-sections summarise responses to research questions addressed in the preliminary analyses. These include (section 9.3.2) questions relating to professional commitment, questions relating to the perceived value of CPD (section 9.3.3), questions relating to subjective career success (section 9.3.4), questions relating to self-perceived

employability in section 9.3.5, and questions relating to the CPD the sample *claimed* to do (CPD engagement) in section 9.3.6. Each of these sub-sections considers, where possible, limitations of the research, how the findings relate to the available literature, conceptual and theoretical implications, professional and practical implications, and suggestions for further research.

9.3.2: Professional commitment

The following research questions are considered at this stage:
RQ9: What level of professional commitment does this sample have?
RQ10: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level and job level?

Professional commitment is a well established body of research which has recognised the conflicting commitments that individuals have (Aranya and Jacobsen 1975) and that professional and organisational commitment are distinct constructs (Morrow and Wirth 1989), although they may be compatible (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). There are suggestions in the literature of connections to professional learning (eg. Morrow and Goetz 1988, Arthur and Rousseau 1996, Hall 1996) and connectedness to the professional organisation (Gruen et al. 2000, Hoff 2000), both of which were reflected in the present study.

Professional commitment was measured using a 9-item scale derived from Tsui et al.'s (1997) affective organisational commitment scale ($\alpha = .80$). In this study, professional commitment was high (negatively skewed) overall (means around 70% of the scale maximum), but with an unexplained mid-career dip that was also reflected in other scales, and was accentuated when the data was split by membership level: the fall was greater for MCIPD's. There is no opportunity for comparison with other contemporary groups of professionals, although Aranya. et al. (1981) typically reported mean scores around 78% of the scale maximum. There was a statistically significant interaction effect for age and membership level, although the differences between groups did not reach statistical significance. There were no significant differences by organisational position and gender or membership level, and a moderate effect for age and qualification level, thus it may be concluded that demographic variables made little difference to professional commitment.

Comparison with the literature is difficult as comparable studies either did not consider professional commitment at all, or focused on organisational commitment (Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998). Hoff (2000) found that professional commitment showed little variation over career stage or age range.

A possible limitation of this aspect of the research was that it only focused on affective commitment (Meyer et al. 1993, Tsui et al 1997), but this was because it was felt to be consistent with the 'affective' (ie. attitudinal) nature of the other scales, and continuance commitment was not seen as relevant in the context of this project. Normative professional commitment could have been introduced as a measure of the extent to which the sample were in agreement with the CIPD's CPD policies. However, this was believed to be covered by item 7, the reverse-scored 'often I find it difficult to agree with this profession's policies on important matters relating to its members'.

Conceptually and theoretically, while there is little contemporary research that is comparable, it is believed there may be substantial potential for future research. In fact, as more occupations identify themselves as 'professional' (Greenwood and Lachman 19996, Critten 1999), a revival of interest in professional commitment as a subject of study in its own right would seem to be timely. Professional commitment was included in the present study to emphasise beyond-organisation attachments as a contrast to research with a similar sample (eg. Sadler Smith and Badger 1998) which had included organisational commitment as a study variable. Pieperl and Baruch (1997) emphasised beyond-organisation 'relational networks' as a component of the post-corporate career, also emphasised by Jackson (1996) and De Fillippi (1996) in the context of boundaryless careers. In the closing stages of this research project, a trend was observable towards outsourcing of HR functions (see, eg. Crabb 2003), representing a major change for HR practitioners in organisations, and likely to produce an increase in the numbers of individuals working as independent consultants, even beyond the 18% of this sample who did so. A future research agenda that focuses on the professional commitment of independent consultants could also seek to assess the extent to which their professional networks really do offer a support network as a replacement for those structures one might more commonly expect to find in organisations.

At a practical level, this issue has not escaped the attention of the CIPD (CIPD 2002c), although the 'any other comments' responses listed in appendix 4 would suggest that some consultants still felt rather exposed and un-represented at the time the research was carried out, and the views of Gruen (2000) that professional associations should engage in relationship marketing to move members 'closer intellectually and emotionally' (page 47) would appear relevant here. If contemporary predictions of downsizing in HR are true, and more HR practitioners find themselves back on the labour market, the active role that American professional associations have taken in creating and disseminating job opportunities (London 1996) may well be a model for the CIPD to follow.

As a concluding comment on professional commitment, while this has not been one of the 'headline' variables in the present study, its importance, especially in the context of changing careers and organisational structures (and especially for HR professionals) should not be underestimated, and there is very substantial potential for further research.

9.3.3: The perceived value of CPD

The preliminary analyses considered the following research questions in relation to the perceived value of CPD:

RQ13: To what extent do these respondents value CPD?

RQ14: Are there differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level or job level?

The perceived value of CPD was measured using a 9-item scale ($\alpha = .93$) adapted from Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998. Data were negatively skewed, with some of the highest values of all reported by the most senior respondents both organisationally and in terms of professional status: it is suspected that these senior FCIPD's may see themselves as the custodians of professional standards. High values were reported by FCIPD's at more junior levels: possibly because these were individuals showing early career and professional commitment. In the light of these observations, it was surprising that H1 (professional commitment and CPDV, discussed below) was not more strongly supported. Findings matched those of Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998:71) in that commitment to CPD was 'lowest among the older males', although some of the highest reported values in

the present study were from the older females. Other high scores were from relatively junior Fellows. Sadler-Smith and Badger (1998) had found no significant main or interaction effects for age, gender or job level. This was also the case in the present study. The relatively modest impact of these variables in the present study was unexpected, as Tamkin and Hillage (1997) for example, suggested (page 1) that participation in learning was 'heavily influenced by demographic factors'.

The qualitative study suggested that a well qualified sample might place a greater value on CPD, and younger graduates, and especially graduates in 'First Line Manager' positions appeared to value CPD highly. However analysis (ANOVA) of CPDV by age and qualification level; and by organisational position and qualification level, failed to reveal statistically significant main or interaction effects.

Limitations (in relation to CPDV) of the research include a belief on the part of the researcher that, on reflection, it would have been complemented by a consideration of some aspect of an individuals' ability to learn, either in the form of andragogy (Maguire and Fuller 1997), learning style (Kolb 1984, Honey and Mumford 1992) or cognitive style (Sadler-Smith et al 2000). This would acknowledge the impact of one's situation or disposition to learn, which could then be correlated with perception of learning effectiveness. In addition, this study, unlike others (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, Harris 2000) did not consider the record-keeping aspects of CPD, which is seen as a 'chore' in most comparable studies.

As an empirical study of CPD, this project is believed to be significant in itself, for as Sadler-Smith et al (2000) identified (page 239):
'CPD appears, at least within some professional institutes, to have attained a status as orthodoxy based largely upon rhetoric rather than any established theoretical or empirical base'.
It is hoped that this study, with subsequent extensions, will prove to be a significant contribution to both the theoretical and empirical basis of CPD.

Further implications of this aspect of the research include that while respondents appear to value CPD highly, this was a fairly modest response rate, albeit in line with other

studies of the CPD of CIPD members. The CIPD has promoted CPD heavily, but may well be deluding itself if it believes that a majority of its members are strongly committed to it, or see the need to engage (Taylor 1996, Gosling 2000). It is believed that further work is needed to evaluate the importance of attitudes to CPD, but in association with preferred modes of CPD (here, CPD engagement). CPD policy needs to be inclusive in its approach (Viney and Muller 2000), notably in respect of the disparate needs of independent consultants, and those with a 'training' orientation (see appendix 4). Furthermore, the implications of mandatory CPD should be considered by the CIPD in the light of the fairly modest response to this survey: faced with a forced-choice, would members actually engage? A further research agenda in relation to CPD is discussed at the end of section 9.3.6 below, to avoid duplication.

9.3.4: Subjective career success

The following research questions were considered in relation to subjective career success:
RQ16: What does this sample believe about their subjective career success?
RQ17: Are there differences by gender, age, membership level, qualification level and job level?

Subjective career success was measured by an eight-item scale (α=.88), with three items from Nabi (1999), and five from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). Subjective career success results were again negatively skewed with no statistically significant variations by age or, gender, and the apparent influence of having a degree was not statistically significant, although Nabi (1999) had reported a positive correlation between qualification level and subjective career success. Similarly, Melamed (1996) had reported a correlation with 'mental capacity'. Simpson and Altman (2000) suggested that those individuals who manage to break through 'glass ceilings' would be individuals of exceptional calibre, and it is noticeable that, for example in figure 33 (p.232) that women at the highest levels report (just) the highest levels of subjective career success. On the other hand, Van Eck Peluchette (1993) had suggested that women were more likely to experience career alienation than men, and data presented here may support this, especially for mid-career women (figure 31). Nabi (2001) suggested that women value

subjective career success more highly than men, but this was not reflected in this study. Overall, by age, the data again revealed a mid-career dip, both by age and membership level. Organisational position, in itself an element of objective career success, had a statistically significant relationship to subjective career success for this sample, and graduates at the highest level (figure 34, page 234) reported the highest levels of subjective career success.

In terms of the conceptual and theoretical implications of this research, the differences by age and gender, while not often significantly different, do consistently present mid-career low scores, which may well be worthy of further investigation. The existence of this 'dip' in scores across the range of study variables may be indicative of mid-career discontentment, also identified by Thomas and Dunkerley (1999). For example, to what extent is this attributable to career frustration, career plateau-ing, or qualification or skills barriers?

Subjective career success has been found to be a well established body of research, and the principal contribution of this research project is the addition to the field of a focused work relating to a specific professional group - established human resource professionals in the UK. Although this is a cross-sectional study, the data has a longitudinal quality in that the oldest respondents may have spent up to fifty years in the workplace, and will also probably have enjoyed what have been described as traditional 'organisational careers' (Arthur 1994) or 'onwards and upwards' (Hirsh 1995). The period of research represents a period of transition and change, both within organisations and careers, and within the HR profession, and the long -term effects of delayering, down-sizing, and outsourcing on perceptions of career success offer substantial potential for longitudinal study. Finally, there is believed to be a lack of studies of subjective career success of individuals who work independently of organisations (eg. independent consultants), and this could well form part of a research agenda more relevant to the post-corporate labour market.

9.3.5 Employability

The preliminary analysis considered the following research questions in relation to employability:

RQ20: What is this sample's perception of their employability (main scale)
RQ22: Are there differences in the main scale and sub-scales by age, gender, qualification level, professional level and job level?

The scale developed for employability (α = .88) was the subject of a separate analysis of its psychometric properties in chapter 7, although the descriptive statistics for the main scale and the two subscales revealed very few differences in results. Mean scores were typically around 70% of the scale maximum. Self-perceived employability declined with age (Nielsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002). Possession of a degree had a positive impact on self-perceived employability at all age groups and all organisational levels, although it must be remembered that older members have enjoyed the privilege of the relatively scarcity of their qualifications for much of their careers. Younger graduates will spend their careers in a labour market saturated with individuals with similar qualifications: this may well be an issue for longitudinal study. Again, the data revealed a mid-life 'dip' which merits further investigation. The principal conceptual and theoretical implications of this aspect of the research (including the 'fit' to the available literature) are included in section 9.4 below, to avoid duplication.

A limitation of the research in respect of the employability scale included the fact that this was the first time the scale had been used with a reasonable sample size, and had the sub-scales been identified at an earlier stage the main scale could have been subjected to further refinement. However the scale as used demonstrated a more than satisfactory internal correlation coefficient, and may well have potential development into an individual measure of employability for career-diagnostic purposes. Future research possibilities are explored further in section 9.4, but these include extensions of the research towards a refinement of the scale, and replications of this study with other occupational groups or in other cultural contexts. Finally, the development of the scale in itself has represented an innovative contribution in an emerging body of empirical research (Nielsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002).

9.3.6: CPD Engagement

The final group of questions related to the CPD strategies that respondents actually engaged with. These included:

RQ27: What are the most commonly reported means of updating for this sample?

RQ28: What are the differences by age, gender, qualification level, membership level, and job level?

In relation to the most commonly reported means of updating, this was measured by allowing respondents to select from a 31-item list drawn from an analysis of the available literature, with the option for respondents to add further items if these were not covered. In the event, none did. The most popular method was 'regular reading of books and journals relevant to my profession', followed by 'sharing knowledge with colleagues' and 'reading work-related documents'. It is noticeable that these related to organisational and job-role development rather than wider professional knowledge. As a comparison, Harris (2000b) identified 'professional work based activities' as being the most popular form of updating. The organisational focus was noted with concern by Van Der Heijden (2002), who believed that this may be too introspective and focus on too narrow a skill set. Sadler-Smith et al (2000) had also noted the prevalence of work-based methods amongst their respondents, and expressed concern about the lack of reliance on self directed learning methods that emphasise learner responsibility. This was not reflected in the present study responses, where it could be argued that high scores for informal learning methods do emphasise responsibility and autonomy. In the present study informal development was emphasised over formal 'courses' (again reflecting the Harris Research findings), with qualifications being almost at the bottom of the list, although at least half the present sample were qualified to degree level already.

Results from the present study supported some aspects of the literature, where for example organisations had been identified as 'platforms for learning' (Bird 1994). Although CPD has been widely promoted, the present study has suggested that if professionals are left to choose their own learning methods they will not necessarily acquire the breadth of learning required for professional development as opposed to in-role job-specific learning. A practical issue for the professional institute is how to promote this breadth, without

over-prescription (Taylor 1996, Sandelands 1998, Blyth 2000). At the same time many development activities are part of an organisational as well as an individual agenda (Kennie and Enemark 1999), but individuals need to see a personal benefit in engaging in CPD otherwise they will not do so (Jones and Fear 1994).

A weakness of this aspect of the research however was the assumption that individuals had access to organisationally-located modes of learning: those individuals who were self-employed did not, and many indicated thus on their questionnaires. In addition the ranked measure could itself be a source of weakness: differences between rankings were sometimes a matter of the second decimal place, suggesting that the significance of the difference would be very small, even if it could be measured, and that the potential for generalisability arising from this measure is limited. A further weakness related to the smaller sample size, especially in relation to sub-categories: table 29 for example reveals just one female FCIPD in the under 34 age group.

Responses for *RQ28* were determined by converting the listing of preferred CPD strategies into a total scale score, noting with some caution that this was not intended to be a scale with inherently good psychometric properties, simply a list of items. While the overall engagement score increased for females with age, male scores declined, although the differences were not statistically significant. As with the perceived value of CPD, scores dropped markedly in mid-career, and a statistically significant interaction effect for age and qualification level was discovered, where the responses in the age category 45-49 were significantly different between graduates and non-graduates. There is only limited potential for comparison with others studies as the listing employed in this study was much more comprehensive than those used elsewhere, although this does also emphasise the originality of the research.

The open questions at the end of the questionnaire elicited a variety of responses which are listed in appendix 4, and future priorities for CPD in appendix 5. Age was cited by a number of respondents as a matter of concern in terms of their career, disappointing in a profession supposed to promote 'good practice' in employment. More respondents identified 'strategic HRM' as their future development priority than any other, reflecting perhaps a concern with the HR function's sensitivity about its' place at the organisational

'top table', or perhaps a tendency of the profession to over-sell the strategic role undertaken by HR practitioners.

To some extent the theoretical implications of this aspect of the research mirror those in relation to the perceived value of CPD, and relate to a future research agenda. Despite the extensive practitioner/'good practice' literature in relation to CPD, there are very few empirical studies, and it is hoped that this study may have the potential for extension and replication in a range of ways: for example in relation to the CIPD in other regions or at national level, with other professional organisations, or internationally.

Practically, the findings should be of interest to the CIPD and other professional bodies especially as to which CPD strategies individuals are prepared to or are able to engage with. Sadler-Smith et al. (2000) noted that (page 241):
'Like CPD itself, self-directed learning has attained a self-imposed orthodoxy by dint of which it has entered the mainstream of teaching and learning methods.'
Although professional organisations like the CIPD may promote self-directed learning methods such as e-learning, in this study 'open learning' was accorded a low rating and if the institutes are to engage the majority of learners then more direction may be required, while treading the fine line between this and over-prescription. Academics familiar with the rhetoric of the move from 'teaching to learning' may question whether individuals are really ready for the vision of the independent life-long learner, and this concern may apply to CPD as well. As Sadler-Smith et al (2000:253) concluded:
'Further research should address attitudes to CPD methods.....'

Although the CIPD were more than willing to support the research, practical implementation was more time consuming . 'DE' (Derbyshire) postcodes were accessed first, 'NG' (Nottinghamshire) postcodes later. Questions relating to 'CPD engagement' were added between these two events, with the consequence that the sample size for CPDE was lower, and also a suspicion that the lower response rate for the 'NG' respondents was attributable to what was seen as an excessively long questionnaire. Given the extent to which the contemporary professional 'practitioner' literature has focused on promoting CPD (eg. PARN 2000, 2001, 2002, Flood 2001, Forrest 2001, Blyth 2000, Wilson 2001, Viney and Muller 2002), one might intuitively expect

professional association members to share this sense of priority. In the event, the negatively skewed scores for CPDV might lead one to conclude that these respondents do up to a point, although a more common response might be a low value on CPD (Blyth 2000, Tyler 2001). An alternative suggestion is that the beyond-organisation mindset has been over-emphasised in the present project, that this may be a limitation of the research, and that individuals in HR do still mostly enjoy organisationally-located careers - for now.

In respect of the practical implications for professional associations generally, these relate principally to their promotion of, policies towards, and strategies for members' development of CPD. That the previous empirical studies referred to here focus on the CIPD is not a consequence of selectivity on the part of the researcher to the exclusion of other professions. The fact is that at the present time that believed to be is all there is. While the focus on the human resources profession has limited generalisability at this stage, it has allowed better comparison with the limited body of existing literature.

In respect of a future research agenda, there are a range of possibilities, These relate both to attitudinal studies (CPDV, above) and in relation to CPD engagement. There is very substantial potential for replication or extension with other professional organisations, allowing for some refinement of the research instrument, as follows:

- replication studies within other organisational/managerial professions eg. accountancy, banking, marketing, to assess the effectiveness of their CPD strategies, and member responses to these
- comparative studies between these groups, to identify 'best practice' and compare member attitudes
- research in relation to those professions where CPD is mandatory and determines the continuation of one's 'licence to practice', such as medicine and the law.

Other possible avenues for further research in the short term may include the incorporation of learning styles, included in for example Harris (2000) but excluded here, or cognitive style, as studied by Sadler-Smith et al. (2000). In the long term, longitudinal study may be undertaken to ascertain whether cohorts rising through the age ranges, having different educational experiences, rising qualification profiles and (one might

expect) rising levels of computer literacy, demonstrate a preference for more independent or more dependent modes of learning. Finally, the impact of changing modes of employment (downsizing, outsourcing, self employment) within the HR profession, and the associated impact (restriction?) on learning opportunities may offer potential for future research. The ability to calculate individual scores for CPDE has suggested that there may be the potential to develop a measure of individual CPD engagement. As a concluding comment, the lack of empirical research in relation to CPD, identified in this project and also noted by Sadler-Smith et al. (2000), when considered alongside the emphasis that most professional organisations are now placing on CPD, presents a very substantial opportunity for development, probably the main aspect of a future (personal) research agenda.

9.4 Research questions: Employability scale, sub-scales, and links to subjective career success

9.4.1 Introduction

The development and successful implementation of a scale of employability, although undertaken as a matter of necessity, proved to be a major outcome of the research project, and a number of further research questions address more detailed aspects of the research, the results of which are reported in chapter 6. Specifically, these include:

RQ22: What components of employability are discernible in the respondents' perceptions of their own employability?

RQ23: What are the psychometric properties of the employability scale(s) derived from the sample's perceptions?

RQ24: To what extent is there overlap (redundancy) between the SCS scale and employability?

First, section 9.4.2 will consider the components of the main scale *(RQ22)*, as identified by principal components analysis, and the psychometric properties of the two sub-scales *(RQ23)*. Section 9.4.3 will consider the investigation of extent to which there might be redundancy between the employability scale and the subjective career success scale.

(RQ24). Finally, section 9.4.4 will consider the conceptual, theoretical, practical and professional implications of this research, and suggest an agenda for further research.

9.4.2: Scale components

The scale had been developed from a theoretical perspective derived from a number of literature sources (below), which had emphasised that individual employability, defined in this study as 'the ability to keep the job you have or get the job you want', included components of internal employability (internal labour markets and individual attributes) and external employability (the external labour market and external perceptions of the profession or occupation). The internal-external labour market division was especially informed by Hillage and Pollard (1998), Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin (1999), Tamkin and Hillage 1999, Klutmans and Ott 1999, and the two '*Create*' studies, Lane et al. 2000 and Rajan et al. 2000. The exploratory qualitative research had also contributed to the conceptual basis, notably relative perceptions of the varying status accorded to different professions, which again would have an impact in both internal and external labour markets. This conceptual development was represented diagrammatically as a 2 x 2 matrix presented as figure 2, which in turn was developed into a 4 x 4 matrix (figure 3) to better acknowledge the influence of the four dimensions (the individual, the occupation, the internal and external labour markets), which was then refined into a 16-item questionnaire (table 8), this being used in the survey. This scale was found to have an alpha coefficient of .88, very acceptable for an untested measure. Had it been discovered in time, it is likely that Van der Heijden's (2002:52) 8-item scale would have been utilised in this project, even though it only had an alpha coefficient of .68.

Given this theoretical base, when the 16 items of the scale were subjected to principal components analysis using SPSS, it was gratifying that two main factors were identified which together explained 46.151% of the variance in the scale, and that these broadly mapped against the internal (self, internal labour market) and external (profession, external labour market) dimensions of the conceptual matrix. For example items 1,2,3,4, 9 and 10, all included in component 2, relate to employment aspects within organisations, and items in component 1 , being: 6,8, 11,12, 13, 15, and 16 all clearly relate to employment opportunities outside one's present organisation. The three items (5,7,14)

which represented the convergence of the two components are more 'neutrally' worded in respect of the internal-external division: they could relate to either. The two sub-scales both showed strong internal correlation coefficients (table 11) although neither was as strong as for the combined scale. Further factor analysis suggested that the external employability scale may have two further components although these could not be readily labelled, and that the internal employability scale was made up of just one component. There was a strong, statistically significant correlation between the two sub-scales ($r = .551$, $p \leq 0.01$), suggesting that at least in the minds of these respondents, the constructs of internal and external employability may be linked.

9.4.3 Employability and subjective career success

Concerns about potential overlap between these two scales were addressed by factor analysis of both scales combined together. Initially (as presented in table 12) all items loaded onto one component which explained over 61% of the variance. Varimax rotation of the two factor solution (table 14) shows two components which presented a relatively 'clean' distinction between career success (component 1: 22.857% of the variance) and employability (component 2: 21.85% of the variance), which also separated the sources of the career success scale items (Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley 1990, and Nabi 1999).

A number of limitations of the research can be identified, in addition to those in section 9.3.4 above. These include the fact that some aspects of the wording of the scale appeared to infer that individuals were in organisational employment, which alienated some of the self-employed respondents. In addition, the wording of the questionnaire would benefit from further refinement: some questions were quite similar to adjacent items.

9.4.4: Implications of the research

There are a number of conceptual and theoretical implications of the research. The results suggest that for the present sample, career success and employability are seen as distinctive constructs, although two of the 'employability' scale items may well have more relevance to subjective career success. Differences between the employability scale and

the subjective career success scale were also reinforced by observations from the preliminary analyses. While the employability scores decreased with age, the career success scores rose, and the former was positively influenced by possession of a degree while the latter was not. Overall, these results would suggest that employability, as conceptualised in this study, is a qualitatively different construct to subjective career success: employability relates to one's perception of present and future opportunities, while career success relates to one's perception of past and present achievements.

Employability, as a potential research variable, emerged from the literature review as a possible positive approach to employment sustainability on the part of individuals, incorporating internal and external labour market factors (Hillage and Pollard 1998, Rajan et al. 2000), occupational factors (Kirschenbaum and Mano-Negrin 1999) and individual attributes (Lane et al. 2000). Cynicism as to the validity of the construct (Pascale 1995, Rajan et al, 2000) is believed to be in no small way attributable to a general lack of clarity as to what employability means, and to a lack of empirical research in the field. This study has focused on individual employability, as opposed to the conception of employability as the outcome of HR strategy.

There are a number of potential suggestions for further research. A major contribution of the present study is likely to be the addition, through future publication, of an empirical study to this emerging international research field (Nielsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002). Following further refinement of the employability scale, this may include:

- further multivariate research to include for example a measure of ambition, or of orientation to learning
- replication of this study with other occupational groups
- extension of this research to a more general sample to consider the impact of age, perhaps as longitudinal research

Although research relating to CPD was identified above as a major avenue for future research, employability also presents very substantial opportunities, and is a construct that would appear to be highly relevant to the millenial labour market.

9. 5 Statistical relationships between variables

9.5.1 Introduction

The research mainly focused on continuing professional development for the professional sample, and how this correlated with other variables. For example, did their attitude to CPD depend on their desire for career success, or employability, or was it simply a function of their professional commitment? Some of these relationships were well grounded in the literature, and could therefore be expressed as formal hypotheses. These are considered in section 9.5.2. Other research questions included some that had originally been considered as hypotheses but had been reframed due to the uncertain nature of the relationships, which could not be clarified by conceptual development of existing theory as in many cases these were new or relatively untested measures, or untested in this particular relationship. These are considered in section 9.5.3. A third group of research questions considered more complex relationships that could only be tested with the use of multiple hierarchical regression: these are tested in section 9.5.4. In each section the match between the results and the available literature will be considered, with conceptual and theoretical implications, practical and professional implications, and suggestions for further research.

9.5.2 Research Hypotheses.

Two of the relationships between study variables were expressed as formal hyotheses. These were:

H1: That high levels of professional commitment (PC) correlate positively with a positive attitude to continuing professional development (CPDV)

H2: That a high score in self-perceived subjective career success correlates positively with high self-perceived employability

Both of these hypthoses were tested following the collection of the survey data. It is probably most accurate to say that the first hypothesis was moderately supported, but that given the extent to which their professional organisation has promoted CPD, this sample were not as positive as was expected. H1 ($r = .358$, sig ≤ 0.01) received moderate, but

statistically significant support, although only small differences were observed when the data was split by gender, and apparent differences by membership level did not reach statistical significance. Partial correlation, testing for a range of confounding variables, caused little change in the correlation coefficient, actually for either of the hypothesised relationships. The only notable difference related to 'CPD Engagement' as a control variable, which is a result that should be treated with caution due to the lower power of the Nottingham-only respondents. Similar studies (eg. Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998) have tended to emphasise organisational rather than professional commitment: on this occasion the emphasis was very much on beyond-organisation factors.

A higher correlation had been expected for a number of reasons. Blau (1985) had noted the importance of a development orientation, analogous to CPD. Tsui et al. (1997) had examined 'investment' in a relationship, again making a connection to where individuals 'invest' in a profession through CPD. The CIPD themselves had been perceived (Williams 1999, Harris 2000, Williams 2001) as being leaders in the field, and it seemed not unreasonable to expect that their members might show a high level of professional commitment, and that this would be linked to a high perceived value of CPD.

H2 (that high self perceived subjective career success correlated positively with high self-perceived employability) received stronger support ($r = .532$, $p \leq .000$), with little difference in correlation coefficients when the data was split by gender or membership level. As revealed in table 31, this was one of the strongest correlations among the study variables. While it may seem rather obvious that people who believe they are successful should believe they are more employable (and vice versa), it must be emphasised that this research project has suggested that these are two entirely separate constructs. This was discussed in detail in chapter 7, with the suggestion that further work on the scales could further reinforce their distinctive nature. Partial correlation was conducted, but very little difference in results could be ascertained, except when controlling for internal and external employability, which results were discarded anyway due to problems of singularity (overlap or shared items with another scale). There is little comparable research in relation to employability, and none known that correlates employability with career success. Van Der Heijden's (2002) research utilised a more general population, with

a strong emphasis on the impact of age on employability, and there may be potential for further research with this focus.

9.5.3: Research Questions

A second group of research questions addressed a range of relationships that were not expressable as formal hypotheses, this reflecting the relatively untested nature of many of the relationships and the exploratory nature of the research. Research questions considered at this stage included:

RQ11: In what ways is professional commitment statistically related to engagement with CPD (CPDE), subjective career success, and employability?

Table 38 (page 274) reveals moderately strong, statistically significant relationships, which showed little variation by gender, although the smaller sample size for Fellows undermined that statistical significance when the data were split by membership level. Although there is no underpinning theory or prior published work to compare with, given the nature of the variables in that these are all constructs that one would expect to be positively perceived, and the data were negatively skewed, then one might expect to see positive correlations, as presented.

RQ25: What are the statistical relationships between employability and CPDV and CPDE?

Correlation of the new scale of employability with the value of CPD (CPDV), showed a modest ($r = .200$) but quite statistically significant ($p \leq .005$) relationship, this effect being principally due to the reasonable sample size. Potential differences in r attributable to gender did not reach statistical significance, and although differences by membership level did reach statistical significance, the smaller sample size of the Fellows' sub-sample means this should be treated with caution. Controlling for other variables did not produce any meaningful results (the correlations were either little different, or not statistically significant any more, or both) which can be attributed to the low initial correlation coefficient. Correlation of employability with CPD engagement showed a slightly stronger relationship ($r = .282$, $p \leq .005$). Partial correlation was used to control for a range of other variables, as illustrated in table 40 (page 277), but produced little difference in results. As these are relatively untested variables, a conceptual 'fit' to existing literature

is difficult. It is possible that further refinement of the employability scale may produce higher correlations. An important practical implication in relation to the perceived value of CPD arising from this stage of the research is that CPDV, because of the modest correlation, is therefore not 'deficit driven' (that is, a catch-up strategy because of low perceived employability) but more likely to be part of an overall pattern of professional commitment and involvement.

RQ18: What are the statistical relationships between subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD (CPDV)?

A similarly untested relationship was between subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD, and no correlation was found ($r = .1$). There had been a number of reasons for believing that there might be a relationship here, although no substantial 'connecting' theory - this hypothesis was therefore more exploratory in nature. On one hand one might expect individuals who do not believe themselves to be successful would wish to engage in CPD to *achieve* a 'ticket' to success. On the other hand individuals who are already successful could reasonably be expected to engage in CPD to *sustain* their success. Conversely, unsuccessful individuals might also quit or give up on personal development if they believe they might never achieve success, or successful individuals might not bother with CPD because they believe they are successful enough already and do not perceive the need for updating. To then find no real correlation at all was actually the last result that was expected - what was expected was either a positive or negative correlation one way or the other. Intuitively one would expect perceptions of subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD to be in some way connected, and this is a (somewhat problematic!) area for further research. Again because the initial correlations were so low controlling for other variables did not produce any meaningful results. Again there is no relevant literature to fall back on as this is believed to be the first time these two variables had been tested together. Because of the uncertainty, in this relationship, expressed above, it is possible that the results for the 'quitters' might cancel out the results for the 'achievers' (and so on across the four groups), thus producing the low correlation. On the other hand, it may be that the two variables are simply not related. Either way, there is potential for further research to clarify the relationship.

There are a number of further possible limitations of this aspect of the research. The variable results could to some extent be attributed to an inadequate sample size, especially for the CPD engagement items, or the FCIPD respondents. Future research could address this by extending the sample, for example if the CIPD is used as the population, by using more than one geographical region. The low correlation between subjective career success and perceived value of CPD could be due to the fact that SCS is not quite the right variable to include: a measure of *ambition* may be more appropriate: how likely respondents are to place a high value on CPD may be related to how far they wish to go in terms of career progression. A further possibility may be to test this relationship where CPD is mandatory, such as in medicine or the law: does making CPD compulsory influence how respondents feel about it, and how it links to their career success?

9.5.4 Multiple hierarchical regression

Two further research questions related to complex relationships that were believed to exist between the two main research variables (employability and the perceived value of CPD), and other study variables, and which were tested by multiple hierarchical regression. For example:

RQ30: Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of value attributed to CPD?

A two-stage model was employed, with predictors organisational position, qualification level, gender, professional membership level, and age in model 1, which explained 4.1% of the variance in CPDV. Model 2 added professional commitment, subjective career success and employability, and explained 17.6% of the variance in CPDV. Statistically significant individual contributions were only made by professional commitment and gender.

A further research question was:

RQ31: Which biographical and attitudinal variables are the best statistical predictors of self perceived total employability?

When employability was treated as the dependent variable, quite different results were obtained. Model 1, comprising the biographical variables, explained 10.7% of the

variance in employability. Model 2, adding subjective career success, professional commitment and CPDV, explained 41% of the variance, and this was statistically significant ($p \leq .001$). Statistically significant unique contributions were made by career success, professional commitment, age, qualification level, and to a lesser extent by one's position in the organisation, in that order.

Referring back to the correlations between scales (table 32, p. 266), the strongest correlation of all the study variables was between employability and career success ($r = .532$, $p \leq .01$), with professional commitment ($r = .317$, $p \leq .01$) also showing a quite strong, statistically significant, positive correlation. Age was negatively correlated ($r = -.151$, $p \leq .05$), as was one's position in the organisation ($r = -.251$, $p \leq .01$) and the level of qualification ($r = -.122$), although the latter was not statistically significant as a raw correlation. The last two correlations are a little misleading, as the highest level of qualification or job level being coded as '1' caused the negative correlation. In essence, employability declines with age, is higher for graduates, and is higher for those in higher organisational position.

9.6 Overall Conclusions

What overall conclusions can be drawn from the research project? The principal theoretical contribution of the research is believed to be in those areas where the existing empirical literature either was insubstantial relating to individual variables (CPD, employability) or dated in respect of contemporary careers (career success). Further implications of the research are that it should contribute to an enhanced understanding of organisationally located professionals and their coping, survival, and success strategies in respect of contemporary employment conditions. In itself this represents a shift of focus from much of the occupational psychology, management and organisational behaviour research of the late 20th century. In much of the emerging research of the 1990's , the emphasis was a managerialist one, with a focus on for example how one could 'tweak' the psychological contract, with the aim of getting employees to work harder, or show greater loyalty, lower turnover, higher commitment (see, eg. Sparrow 1996).

The present study set out to deliberately de-emphasise the organisational dimension, and focused on what were hoped to be independent-minded professionals who, by placing less emphasis on organisational dependence, could function more like free agents in the marketplace and show greater resilience in the form of employability as a result. Whether the UK's human resources profession is quite ready for this vision of the independent professional is another matter, and the respondents' emphasis on organisationally-located development strategies suggests that these may well be individuals who place a strong value on traditional careers in traditional structures. Present trends in the profession indicate a greater reliance on outsourcing HR functions (Crabb 2003). The post-corporate HR career (Pieperl and Baruch 1997) may become not uncommon sooner rather than later.

In terms of the implications of this research for the CIPD specifically, it is suggested that although the CIPD has been at the forefront of promoting both the idea of CPD and frameworks to execute it (eg. Jones and Fear 1994, Sadler-Smith and Badger 1998, CIPD 2002a, 2002b), the Institute may be deluding itself if it believes that its members share this enthusiasm for CPD. In this study, less than 25% of the most experienced membership in one region responded to a questionnaire about CPD, they were only moderately supportive of the value of CPD (although some were openly hostile), and that the main driver for undertaking CPD appeared to be their professional commitment rather than any perceived value in terms of their career success or employability. Overall the result suggests that this institute has some way to go before being able to claim that its members are well engaged with a comprehensive CPD process.

One further challenging area is the reconciliation of the relationship between subjective career success and CPD: intuitively there *should* be a relationship of some sort, even though this study failed to establish any connection at all. However the lack of an identified relationship in this may be more attributable to a failure to examine the nature of the relationships deeply enough. There may be a series of relationships in respect of subjective career success and the perceived value of CPD, but their identification may require a more sophisticated research instrument.

Another relationship that may be explored is a possible relationship between employability and the psychological contract - are career success, professional commitment and employability simply components of a contemporary psychological contract, that represents a potential means of framing an individually focused (rather than organisationally driven and managerialist) frame of reference for work relationships in the 21st century?

For the future there is potential for longitudinal study which was not possible within the time frame of a PhD. In addition, this has been a UK based study of professional workers, and the potential for replication, with other institutes, in other national/cultural contexts would afford the potential for comparison with the evolving body of research (eg. Neilsen 1999, Van der Heijden 2002).

The shortening half-life of knowledge, an increasing recognition of the potential for professional obsolesence, and the need for personal and professional updating to keep ahead of rapid change have produced a significant increase of the level of interest in Continuing Professional Development or CPD. This project focused on Human Resource professionals as individuals who potentially should be 'ahead of the game' in a profession that has been one of the keenest promoters of CPD in the UK. It is suggested that the results presented in this thesis present a picture of a body of professionals who do (sometimes reluctantly) engage in a range of updating strategies, but that these relate more to job or organisation driven needs than the wider professional context or their own personal, beyond-organisational, development. Their reluctance is greater when they are asked to record and evidence their CPD, suggesting problems ahead in respect of the application of 'mandatory' CPD relating to continuation of membership status. Jones and Fear (1994:97) suggested that there may be 'some way to go' before the (then) IPD's CPD policy could have been claimed to be a success, and a similar conclusion presents itself now. Van der Heijden (2002:59) referred to the importance of developing transferable skills, not organisation or even occupation specific skills. On one hand it was evident that respondents had themselves favoured a fairly narrow range of work-organisation located CPD strategies. On the other could it be that professional-body driven CPD is too 'selfish' in relation to what the profession perceives as its own knowledge agenda, and that more generic skills and personal development may be an appropriate emphasis? At the same

time, the need to keep pace with rapid change and 'knowledge obsolescence' represents both a tension and a significant need, and there was strong agreement among the respondents as to the main areas for future development.

A major outcome of the research was the development, originally as a matter of necessity, of a measure of individual employability that shows much better internal reliability than the only comparable measure in the field, and is related to but distinct from subjective career success. The employability measure had internal and external components, consistent with its theoretical basis in the literature and the conceptual models developed in this project, which were (for this sample) highly statistically related, and possibly not separate constructs.

In conclusion, one of the principal contributions of this research is its integrative nature: this study is believed to be the first time that the constructs professional commitment, the perceived value of continuing professional development, perceptions of subjective career success, and self perceptions of employability have been linked together. This research is believed to be representative of the twenty-first century reality for professional workers, and representing a potential positive frame of reference in the turbulence of the post-downsizing era. The principal (future) contribution of the research may well turn out to be that which was least expected, in the contribution to the development of a body of empirical research in relation to the new field of individual employability, a concept that may well come into its own in the new employment paradigm of the twenty-first century.

Andrew Rothwell

June 2003.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ackroyd S. (1996), 'Organization contra organizations: Professions and Organizational change in the United Kingdom', Organization Studies, Vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 599-621

Allen T.D., Russell J.E.A., Poteet M.L., and Dobbins G.H., (1999), 'Learning and Development factors related to perceptions of job content and hierarchical plateauing', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol 20., pp 1113-1137

Aranya N., & Jacobsen D., (1975), 'An empirical study of theories of organizational and occupational commitment', The Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 97, pp 15-22

Aranya N., Pollack J., and Amernic J., (1981) 'An examination of professional commitment in public accounting', Accounting, Organizations and Society, Vol. 6., No. 4. P. 271-280

Armstrong M., (1997) 'A handbook of personnel management practice', Kogan Page, London

Arnold J., (1990), 'Predictors of Career Commitment', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Volume 37, pp. 285-302

Arnold J. (1997), 'Managing Careers into the 21st Century', Paul Chapman Publishing

Arnold J., Cooper C.L., Robertson I.T., (1995) 'Work psychology, understanding human behaviour in the workplace', (2nd Edn. Pitman, London.

Arthur MB (1994), 'The boundaryless career: a new perspective for organizational enquiry', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 15, pp. 295-306

Arthur M.B., and Rousseau D.M., (1996), 'A Career lexicon for the 21st Century', Academy of Management Executive, Vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 28-39

Association of Graduate Recruiters (1995) 'Skills for Graduates in the 21st Century', AGR, London

Atkinson J., 1984, 'Flexible Manning, the way ahead', IMS/Manpower Ltd., Brighton

Bagshaw M., (1996), 'Creating Employability: how can training and development square the circle between individual and corporate interest?', Industrial and Commercial Training, Volume 28, number 1, pp. 16-18

Bagshaw M., (1997), 'Employability - creating a contract of mutual investment.', Industrial and Commercial Training, Volume 19 No. 6., pp 187-189

Ball C., (2000), 'Learning Pays - so what?', Management, May 2000, pp. 30-32

Baruch Y., (1998), 'The rise and fall of organizational commitment', Human Systems Management, Vol. 17. No. 2, pp 135-143

Baruch Y, (1999), 'Response rate in academic studies - a comparative analysis', Human Relations Vol. 54, No. 4, pp 421 - 438

Baruch Y., (2001), 'Employability: a substitute for loyalty', Human Resource Development International, Vol 4., No. 4, pp. 543-566

Beardwell I, and Holden L., (1994) 'Human Resource Management a contemporary prespective', Pitman, London

Beetham H., (2000), 'An alternative perspective on CPD', Educational Developments Vol. 1, No. 2, pp 4-6

Berkeley J., (1995), 'In pursuit of lifelong employability: priorities for initial formation', The European Journal of Vocational Training No. 5 (CEDEFOP) , May-Aug 1995, pp. 53-60

Bird A., (1994), 'Careers as repositories of knowledge: a new perspective on boundaryless careers', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 15, pp 325-344

Blau G.J., (1985), 'The measurement and prediction of Career Commitment', Journal of Occupational psychology, Vol. 58, pp. 277-288

Blau G.J, (1988). 'Further exploring the meaning and measurement of career commitment', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 32, pp. 284-297

Bloch S., and Bates T., (1995), 'Employability: your way to career success', Kogan Page, London

Blyth A., (2000), 'Count the value, not the hours', The Architect's Journal, 17 February 2000, p53

Bolles R.N., (1996) 'What Color is Your Parachute? A practical manual for job hunters', Ten Speed Press, Berkeley Calif.

Bond C., (1994), 'Continuing Professional Development', Training Officer Vol 30, no. 1, pp. 17-19

Brooks J. (2001), 'Approaches to CPD, the ITOL View', Training Journal, , CPD Special Issue, September 2001 pp 14-15

Bryans P., Gormley N., Stalker B., and Williamson B., (1998), 'From collusion to dialogue, Universities and Contining Professional Development', Continuing Professional Development, Volume 1, pp 136-144, on http://www.openhouse.org.uk/virtual-university-press/cpd/

Causer G., and Jones C., (1996), 'Management and the control of technical labour' Work, Employment and Society, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp 105 -1 23

Cavanaugh M.A., and Noe R.A., (1999), 'Antecedents and consequences of relational components of the new psychological contract', Journal of Organizational behaviour, Vol. 20, pp 323-360

CIPD (2002a), 'CIPD Professional Standards' on CIPD Website, http:www.cipd.co.uk/ professionalstandards/advanced:asp accessed 19th February 2002

CIPD (2002b), 'What is CPD', on CIPD Website, http://www.cipd.co.uk/InfoSource/C..... Information/CPDandcareerbreaks.asp , accessed February 19th 2002

CIPD (2002c), 'Small Business Members',in CIPD Branch Supplement, August 2002, p. 3

Cohen A., 1999, 'The relationship between commitment forms and work outcomes: a comparison of three models', Human Relations, Vol. 53. No. 3, pp. 387-417

Cohen J., (1988), 'Statistical Power analysis for the Behavioural Sciences', Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey

Crabb S., (2003), 'East India Companies', People Management, 20 Feb. 2003, pp. 28-32

Cramer D., (1994), 'Introducing Statistics for Social Science Research', Routledge, London

Critten P., (1999), 'Coming out of the closet - we're all professionals now', Continuing Professional Development, issue 1, 1999 (online journal http://www.openhouse.org.uk/virtual-university-press/cpd), pp 1-6

Crofts P., (2000), 'CPD's Local Heroes', People Management, 25 May 2000, page 73

Dalton D.R., Johnson J.L., Daily C.M., (1999), 'On the use of "intent to....." variables in organisational research: an empirical and cautionary assessment', Human Relations Vol. 52, pp 1337-1350

Dalton D.R., Johnson J.L., Daily C.M., (1999), 'On the use of "Intent to..." variables in organizational research: an empirical and cautionary comment', Human Relations, Vol. 52, No. 10, pp. 1337-1350

Daniel C., (2001), 'The Fundamentals of CPD', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, Issue 4 12 October 2001, pp3-4, on www.parn.org.uk, accessed 23rd October 2001

Davies M., and Ford M., (2001), 'Towards Successful Implementation of Continuing Professional Development - a survey of psychiatrist's attitudes', Psychiatric Bulletin, Vol. 25, pp. 334-336

Dawson S., (1994), 'Changes in the distance: professionals reappraise the meaning of management.', Journal of General Management Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 1-20

De Vaus, D., (2002), 'Analyzing Social Science Data, 50 key problems in data Analysis', Sage, London

Desrochers S., and Dahir V., (2000), 'Ambition as a motivational basis of organizational and professional commitment: preliminary analysis of a proposed career advancement ambition scale', Perceptual and Motor Skills, Vol. 91, pp. 563-570

Doherty N (1996) 'Surviving in an era of insecurity', European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 5, No. 4, pp 471-478

Drucker P.F., (1968), 'The practice of Management', Pan Business Management', London

Eades E., and Iles P., (1998), 'Employability and Career self-reliance, towards a measure of resilience'. Conference Paper, British Academy of Management Conference, Nottingham.

Ekinsmyth C., (1999) 'Professional workers in a risk society', Transactions of the Institute

of British Geographers, 24, pp. 353-366

Elias P., Wilson R., and Green A., (1995), Review of the economy and employment: Occupational studies: managerial, professional and technical occupations', Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick.

Elliott P., 1972 'The Sociology of the Professions', Macmillan Publications, London

Fearfull A., and Kerfoot D., (1996), 'Saying 'I do' and wondering 'what to?', a critical analysis of commitment at work', Conference Paper, British Academy of Management Conference, Sheffield.

Feintuch A., (1955), 'Improving the employability and attitudes of "Difficult to place" persons'., Psychological Monographs, Vol. 69, No. 7, p. 392-

Flood J., (2001), 'E-Learning: a driver for continuing professional development?', Training Journal, CPD Special Issue, September 2001

Forrest C., (2001), 'Netcheck', Training Journal, CPD Special Issue, September 2001, pp. 34-35

Fuller A., (1994), 'New approaches to management, training and qualifications: perceptions of use and exchange,' Journal of Management Development, Vol 13, No. 1, pp 23-24

Galvanek J.C., (1997), 'The Talent Alliance: Addressing shifts in the workplace and seizing oportunities in the marketplace'. Employment Relations Today, Spring 1997, pp. 29-36

Garavan T.N., (1999), 'Employability: the emerging new deal', Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 23, no.1, pp 1-5

Gattiker U.E., and Larwood L. (1986), 'Subjective Career Success: a study of managers and support personnel', Journal of Business and Psychology, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 78-94

Glover C., (2001), 'The Taking Stock Market', People Management, 6 Dec. pp. 44-45

Goffin R.D., and Gellatly I.R., (2001), 'A multi-rater assessment of organizational commitment: are self-report measures biased?', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 2, pp. 437-451

Gosling D, (2000), 'Continuous Professional Development', Educational Developments, Vol. 1, No. 2, p11

Green S.B., (1991), 'How many subjects does it take to do a regression analysis?', Multivariate Behavioural Research, Vol. 26, No. 3, pp 499-510

Grenhaus J.H., Parasuraman S., and Wormley W.M., (1990), 'Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes', Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 33, No. 1, pp. 64-86

Greenwood R., and Lachman R., (1996), 'Change as an underlying theme in professional service organizations: an introduction', Organization Studies, Vol.17. No. 4, pp.563-572

Gruen T.W., Summers J.O., Acito F., (2000). 'Relationship marketing activities, commitment, and membership behaviours in professional associations', Journal of Marketing, Vol. 64, July, pp. 34-49

Guest D., and Mackenzie Davey K.M., (1996), 'Don't write off the traditional career', People Management, 22 February, pp. 22-25

Guest D., Conway N., Briner R., and Dickman M., (1996), 'The state of the psychological contract in employment', Issues in People Management no. 16, Institute of Personnel and Development, London

Guest D., Conway N., (1997), 'Employee motivation and the Psychological Contract', Issues in People Managemnent No. 21, Institute of Personnel and Development, London

Guest G., (1999), Towards Lifelong Professional Learning', Adults Learning, December 1999, pp. 23-25

Guest G., (2001), 'Thoughts on Learning and Development', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, Issue 4, 12 October 2001, pp 1-2, on www.parn.org.uk accessed 23rd October 2001

Guzzo R.A., and Noonan K.A., (1994), 'Human resource practices as communications and the psychological contract', Human Resource Management, Vol 33, No. 3 Fall, pp m447-462

Haigh M., Gibbs, G., (Eds.) (1981), 'Enhancing Employability', Standing Conference on Educational Development, SCED Paper 19, Oxford Polytechnic.

Haim A. (1939), 'A preliminary note on a vocational investigation', British Journal of Psychology, Vol. 29, pp. 246-251

Hallier J., and Butts S., (1999), 'Employer's discovery of training: self-development, employability and the rhetoric of partnership.', Employee Relations Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 80-94

Hammersley M., and Atkinson P., (1983), 'Ethnography: principles in practice', Tavistock, London

Harrington L.J., and Shepard M., (1996), 'Career Strategies for turbulent times', Internal Auditor, June, pp. 48-52

Harris (2000a), 'Summary Report on the Lifelong Learning Survey undertaken by Harris

Research', Harris Research/CIPD, London

Harris (2000b), 'CPD 2000 Survey Corporate Members', Harris Research/CIPD, London

Harris (2000c), 'CPD 2000 Survey Graduate Members', Harris Research/CIPD, London

Harvey L., Moon S., Geall V., and Bower R., (1997), 'Graduates'work: organisational change and student attributes', Centre for Research in Quality, University of Central England, Birmingham.

Herbert I., (2000), 'Pros but no cons', Management Accounting, June 2000, pp 50-51

Herriot P., and Pemberton C., (1995a), 'A new deal for middle managers', People Management, 15 June, pp. 32-34

Herriot P. and Pemberton C., (1995a), 'New Deals, the revolution in managerial careers', John Wiley, London.

Herriot P., and Pemberton C., (1996), Contracting Careers', Human Relations, Vol. 49, No.6, pp. 757-789

Herriot P., and Pemberton C., (1997), 'Facilitating New Deals', Human Resource Management Journal, Vol 7., no. 1, pp. 45-55

Herriot P., Pemberton C., and Hawtin E., (1996), 'The career attitudes and intentions of managers in the finance sector', British Journal of Management, Vol. 7., pp. 181-190

Herriot P., and Stickland R., (1996), 'Career management: the issue of the millenium', European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 5., No. 4, pp. 465-470

Hillage J and Pollard E., (1998), 'Employability: Developing a framework for policy analysis', Institute for Employment Studies Research Report RR85, DfEE, Brighton.

Hiltrop J.-M., (1995), 'The changing psychological contract: the human resource challenge of the 1990's', European Management Journal, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 286-294.

Hind P., Frost M., and Rowley S., (1996), 'the resilience audit and the psychological contract', Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol. 11, No. 7, pp. 18-29

Hirsh W., and Jackson C., (1995), 'Careers in Organisations: issues for the future', Institute for Employment Studies report no. 287, Brighton.

Hoeksma L., Van de Vliert E., and Williams R., (1997), 'The interplay between learning strategy and organizational structure in predicting career success', The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume 8, No. 3, pp. 307-327

Hoff T., (2000), 'Professional commitment among US physician executives in managed care', Social Science and Medicine 50 (1433-1444)

Iles P., (1997), 'Sustainable high potential career development: a resource-based view', Career Development International, Volume 2, No. 7, p 347-353

Iles P., Forster A., and Tinline G., (1996), 'The changing relationships between work commitment, personal flexibility and employability: an evaluation of a field experiment in executive development', Journal of managerial psychology Vol. 11, No. 8, pp 18-34

Inkson K, (1995), 'Effects of changing economic conditions on managerial job changes and careers', British Journal of Management, Vol. 6., pp. 183-194

Institute of Personnel and Development (1993), 'The IPD Statement on Continuous Development: People and Work', IPD, London, 1993

Jackson C., (1996), 'Managing and developing a boundaryless career: lessons from dance and drama', European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 5, No. 4, pp 617-628

Jankowicz A.D., (2000), 'Business Research Projects', Thomson Learning Business Press., London

Jones C., and DeFillippi R.J., 'Back to the future in film: combining industry and self-knowledge to meet the career challenges of the 21st century', Academy of Management Executive, Vol. 10, No.4. pp. 89-103

Jones N., and Fear N., (1994), 'Continuing Professional Development: Perspectives from Human Resource Professionals', Personnel Review Vol. 23, No. 8, pp 49-60

Kacmar K.M., Carlson DS., Brymer R.A. (1999), 'Assessing the appropriateness of self-managed learning', Journal of Management Development, Vol. 11, No. 192, pp 50-60

Kanter R.M., (1989), 'When giants learn to dance', Simon & Schuster, NY

Kaschube J., Wittman A., and Von Rosensteil L., (1996), 'Identification and goal choice of managerial candidates - organizational and individual perspectives', European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 5., No.4, pp.521-540

Kelly J., and Gennard J., (2002), 'Top Guns', People Management, 30 May 2002, pp 25-28

Kennie T.J.M., and Enemark S., (1999), 'The growing importance of CPD.', Continuing professional Development Vol. 1., (http://www.openhouse.org.uk/virtual-university-press/cpd/), pp. 154-163

Kerr S., Von Glinow M.A., and Schriesheim J., (1977), 'Issues in the study of 'Professionals' in Organizations: The case of scientists and engineers', Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, Vol. 18, pp 329-345.

Kessler I., and Undy R., (1996), 'Issues in people management no.12: the new

employment relationship', Institute of Personnel and Development

King Z., (2000), 'Coping with boundary-spanning careers: career self management and personal control', Paper, British Academy of Management Conference, Edinburgh

Kirschenbaum A., and Mano-Negrin R., (1999), 'Underlying labour market dimensions of "opportunities": the case of employee turnover', Human Relations Vol. 52, No. 10, pp1233-1255

Kolb D., (1984), 'Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development', Prentice Hall, London

Korman A.K., Wittig-Berman U., and Long D., (1981), 'Career success and personal failure: alienation in professionals and managers', Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 24, No. 2., pp. 342-360

Kluytmans F., and Ott M., (1999), 'The Management of Employability in the Netherlands', European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Vol. 8., No. 2, pp. 261-272

Krejcie R.V. and Morgan D.W., (1970), 'Determining sample size for research activities', Educational and Psychological Measurement', Vol. 30, pp. 607-610

Lane D., Puri A., Cleverly P., Wylie R., and Rajan A., (2000), 'Employability: Bridging the Gap Between Rhetoric and Reality; Second Report: Employee's Perspective', Create Consultancy/Professional Development Foundation, London

Leveson R., (1996), 'Can professionals be multi-skilled?', People Management, 29 August, pp. 36-38

London M., (1983), 'Towards a theory of career motivation', Academy of Management Review, Vol. 8., pp. 620-630

London M., (1996), 'Redeployment and continuous learning in the 21st century: Hard lessons and positive examples from the downsizing era', Academy of Management Executive, Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 67-79.

McKendall M., and Margulis S.T., (1996), 'Organizational loyalty is not the answer', Managing Office Technology, January, pp. 30-33

Madden C.A., and Mitchell V.A., ((1993), 'Professions, Standards and Competence: A Survey of Continuing Education for the Professions', University of Bristol

Maguire M., and Fuller A., (1997), 'Lifetime Learning and Professional Development', in Woodward I., (Ed.) 'Continuing Profesional Development: Issues in design and delivery, Cassel, London, pp 176-187.

Mallough S., and Kleiner B.H., (2001), 'How to determine employability and wage earning capacity', Management Research News, Vol. 24, No 3/4, pp. 118-122

Mathieu J.E., and Zajac D.M., (1990), 'A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment', Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 108, No. 2, pp 171-194

Mayo A., (2001), 'Will the real CPD please stand up?', Training Journal September 2001 CPD Special Issue, page 36

Melamed T., (1996), 'Validation of a stage model of career success.', Applied Psychology: An International Review, Vol. 45, No. 1, pp 35-65

Meyer J.P., Allen N.J., Smith C.A., (1993), 'Commitment to organizations and occupations: extension and test of a three-component conceptualization', Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 78, No. 4, pp 538-551.

Mirvis P.H., and Hall D.T., (1994), 'Psychological success and the boundaryless career', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 15, pp. 365-380.

Moran P., and Bateman M., (2000), 'National Survey of IPD Small Business Members', Foundation for SME Development, University of Durham

Morrow P.C. and Goetz J.F. (1988), 'Professionalism as a form of work commitment', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 32, pp. 92-111.

Morrow P.C., and Wirth R.E., (1989), 'Work commitment among salaried professionals', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 34, pp 40-56.

Mowday R., (1998), 'Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment', Human Resource Management Review. Vol. 8., No. 4., pp. 387-401.

Mowday R.T., Steers R.M., and Porter L.W., (1979), 'The measurement of organizational commitment', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 14, pp. 224-247.

Nabi G.R. (1998) 'Predictors of Subjective and Objective Career Success', Unpublished PhD. thesis, University of Central Lancashire.

Nabi G.R., (1999), 'A investigation into the differential profile of predictors of objective and subjective career success', Career Development International, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 212-224

Nabi G.R., (2000), 'Motivational atributes and organizational experiences as predictors of career-enhancing strategies, Career Development international, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp 91-98

Nabi G.R. (2001), 'The relationship between HRM, social support, and subjective career success among men and women', International Journal of Manpower, Vol. 22, No. 5., pp. 457-474

Nachmias C., and Nachmais D., (1981) 'Research Method in the social sciences', Edward Arnold, London

Newer B.S., (1944), 'Employment Prospects', Personnel Journal, Volume 23, pp. 135-144

Neilsen J, (1999), 'Employability and Workability among Danish employees', Experimental Ageing Research Vol. 25, pp 393--397

Nicholson N., (1996), 'Career systems in crisis: change and opportunity in the information age', Academy of Management Executive, Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 40-51

Oakley K., (1995), 'Professionals and the new knowledge workers: the case of management consultants', Policy Studies, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 14-22

Owen F., and Jones R., (1982), 'Statistics', 2nd Edn., Polytech Publishers, Stockport.

PARN (2000), 'Analysis of professional association member surveys', on www.parn.org.uk/res/sg_notes.cfm?snid=2&ResProj=3, accessed 30/12/00

PARN (2001a), 'Case Study: Developing Excellence, CPD programme of the Institute of Public Relations (IPR)', Professional Associations Research Network (PARN),on www.parn.org.uk/parn2.cfm?sct=13&content=pgp_cpd%2Fintro.cfm&sidebar=research.cfm, accessed 12th June 2001

PARN (2001b) 'Summary of Web-in face to face debate . Planning Recording and Reflecting on CPD: problems and solutions.' Professional Associations Research Network (PARN), on www.parn.org.uk/parn2.cfm?sct=13econtent=pgp-cpd%2fintrocfm&sidebr=research.cfm, accessed November 13th 2001.

PARN (2002a), 'Governance Structure and CPD', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, Issue 16, 18 March 2002, on www.par,org.uk, accessed 19th March 2002.

PARN (2002b), 'Dentists adopt mandatory CPD Scheme', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, Issue 11, 4 Jan 2002, on www.parn.org.uk, accessed 6th January 2002.

Pascale R., (1995), 'In search of the new employment contract', Human Resources, November/December 1995, pp 21-26

Pazy A., (1992), 'The threat of professional obsolesence: how do professionals at different career stages experience it and cope with it?', Human Resource Management, Fall 1990, Vol 29, No.3, pp 251-269

Pieperl M., and Baruch Y., (1997), 'Back to square zero, the post-corporate career', Organizational Dynamics, Spring, pp. 7-23

Phillips E.M. and Pugh D.S., (1994), 'How to get a Phd.,a handbook for students and their supervisors', (2nd edn.), Open University Press, Milton Keynes.

Rajan A., (1997), 'Employability in the finance sector: rhetoric vs. reality.', Human Resource Management Journal, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp 67-78

Rajan A., and Van Eupen P., (1998) 'Tomorrow's people', Create Consultancy, London

Rajan A., Van Eupen P., Chapple K., and Lane D., (2000), 'Employability: Bridging the Gap Between Rhetoric and Reality', First Report: Employer's Perspective., Create Consultancy/Professional Development Foundation, London

Reed M.I., (1996), 'Expert power and control in late modernity: an empirical review and theoretical symthesis', Organization Studies', Vol. 17, No. 4., pp. 573-597

Robinson S.L., and Rousseau D.M. (1994) 'Violating the psychological contract, not the exception but the norm', Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 15, pp.245-259

Romaniuk K., and Snart F., (2000), 'Enhancing employability: the role of prior learning assessment and portfolios', Journal of Workplace Learning/Employee Counselling today, Vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 29-34

Rousseau D.M., (1989), 'Psychological and implied contracts in organizations', Employee Rights and Responsibilities Journal, Vol. 2, pp. 121-139.

Rousseau D.M., (1995), 'Psychological contracts in organisations, understanding written and unwritten agreements', Sage., Thousand Oaks Calif.

Rousseau D.M. (1998), 'Why workers still identify with organisations', Journal of Organisational Behaviour, Vol. 19, pp. 217-233

Rousseau D.M., and Greller M.M. (1994), 'Human resource practices: administrative contract makers', Human Resource Management Journal Special Issue, Vol. 33, No. 3 (Fall), pp. 385-401

Rousseau D.M., and Wade-Benzioni K.A., (1994), 'Linking Strategy and Human Resource Practices: how employee and customer contracts are created', Human Resource Management Journal Special Issue, Vol. 33, No. 3, (Fall), pp. 463-489

Rusaw C.A., (1995), 'Learning by association: professional associations as learning agents', Human Resource Development Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 2, pp. 215-226.

Sadler-Smith E., and Badger B., (1998), 'The HR practitioner's perspective on continuing professional development', Human Resource Management Journal, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp 66-75

Sadler-Smith E., Allinson C.W., and Hayes J., (2000), 'Learning preferences and cognitive style, some implications for continuing professional development', Management Learning, Vol. 31, No. 2, pp. 239-256.

Sandelands E., (1998), 'Emerging issues in continuing professional development', Continuing professional Development, Volume 1, (http://www.openhouse.org.uk/virtual-university-press/cpd/)

Schein E.H., (1978), 'Career dynamics, matching individual and organizational needs', Addison-Wesley, NY

Schein E.H., (1993), 'career Anchors, discovering your real values', Pfeiffer & Co.NY

Schofield P., (1996), 'Managers without portfolio', Accountancy, February pp. 34-38

Sekaran U., (2000), 'Research Methods for Business', John Wiley, NY.

Senior C., (2002), 'Grown up CPD', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, Issue 16, 18 March 2002, pp 2-3, on www.parn.org.uk, accessed March 20th 2002

Shore L.M., and Tetrick L.E., (1994), 'The psychological contract as an explanatory framework in the employment relationship', in Cooper C.L., and Rousseau D.M., (Eds.), Trends in Organizational behaviour, Vol. 1, pp. 91-109, John Wiley, NY.

Short N., Kitchiner N.J., (2002), 'Panic Disorder: Nature, assessment and treatment', Mental Health Practice, Vol 5, No. 7 pp. 33-38

Simpson R., and Altman Y., (2000), 'The time bounded glass ceiling and young women managers: career progress and career success - evidence from the UK', Journal of European Industrial training, Vol. 24, No.5, pp. 190-198.

Silverman D., (2000), 'Doing qualitative research, a practical handbook', Sage, Thousand Oaks, Calif.

South African Institute of Civil Engineering (2002), 'CPD Policy Statement', Civil Engineering (South Africa), February 2002, page 31

Sparrow P.R. (1996A), 'Careers and the Psychological Contract: Understanding the European Context', European Journal of Work and Organization Psychology, Vol. 5, No. 4, pp 479-500.

Sparrow P.R. (1996B), 'Transitions in the psychological contract: some evidence from the banking sector', Human Resource Management Journal Vol. 6, No. 4, pp 75 - 92

Steele R., (2001), 'CPD: Has it been dumbed-down?', RCM Midwives Journal, Vol 4., No. 10, p312

Steers R.M. (1977), 'Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment', Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 22, pp. 47-56.

Steffy B.D., and Jones J.W., (1988), 'The impact of family and career planning variables on the organizational, career and community involvement of professional women', Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 32, pp. 196-212

Tabachnik B.G., and Fidell L.S. (1989), 'Using multivariate statistics' (2nd edition), Harper and Row, New York

Tacq J., (1997), 'Multivariate analysis techniques in Social Science Research: from problem to analysis', Sage, London

Tamkin P., Barber L., Hirsh W., (1995), 'Personal development plans, case studies of practice'., Institute for Employment Studies Report no. 280, University of Sussex.

Tamkin P.and Hillage J., (1997), "Individual commitment to learning: motivation and rewards'., Institute for Employment studies RR 11., DfEE., Brighton

Tamkin P., and Hillage J., (1999), 'Employability and Employers: the missing piece of the jigsaw', The Institute for Employment Studies, Brighton

Tampoe M., (1993) 'Motivating Knowledge Workers - the challenge for the 1990's', Long Range Planning, Vol 26, no. 3, pp 49-55

Tampoe M., (1994), 'Knowledge workers, the new management challenge', professional manager, November, pp. 12-14

Taylor N., (1996), 'Professionalism and Monitoring CPD: Kafka revisited' Planning practice and Research, Vol 11, No. 4, pp 379-389.

Teixeira M.A.P., and Gomes W.B., (2000), 'Autonomous career change among professionals: an empirical and phenomenological study', Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, Vol. 31, No. 1. Pp. 78-96

Thomas R. and Dunkerley D., (1999), 'Careering downwards? Middle manager's experiences in the downsized organisation.' British Journal of Management, Vol 10, pp 157-169

Thornton R., (1970), 'Organizational involvement and commitment to organization and profession', Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 15, pp 417-426.

Tsui A.S., Pearce J.L., Tripoli A.M., (1997), 'Alternative approaches to the employee-organisation relationshi: does investment in employees pay off?, Academy of Management Journal Vol. 40, no. 5, pp. 1089-1121

Tyler J., (2001), 'CPD at RIBA, Building Blocks for the future' Training Journal, September 2001, pp 20-22

Van der Heijden B., (2002), 'Pre-requisites to guarantee life-long employability', Personnel Review, Vol. 31, pp 44-61

Van Deventer A.J., and Scanlon J.A., (1951), ' A survey of the attitudes of local industry toward the employability of the hearing aid wearer', Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders, Vol. 16, pp. 222-225

Van Eck Peluchette J., (1993), 'Subjective career success; the influence of individual difference, family and organisational variables', Journa of Vocational behaviour, Vol. 43, pp 198-208

Viney C., Adamson S., and Doherty N., (1997), 'Paradoxes of fast-track career management', Personnel Review Vol. 26 No.3, pp. 174-186

Viney R., and Muller E., (2002), 'Continuing professional Development for GP non-principals: but sill not enough flour to bake a cake.', Education for Primary Care, Vol 13, pp 115-116

Wallace J.E., (1995), 'Organisational and professional commitment in professional and non professional organisations', Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 40, pp 228-255

Warr M., (2001), 'Continuing Professional Development: the clock is ticking',Legal Executive Journal, September 2001, page 12.

Warr M., (2002), 'In focus: The Law Society', Continuing Professional Development Spotlight, 4 January 2002, page 4, on www.parn.org.uk, accesssed January 8th 2002.

Watkins J., Drury L., Preddy D., et al., (1992), 'From Evolution to Revolution: the pressures on professional life in the 1990's', University of Bristol/Clerical Medical Investment Group, Bristol.

Watkins J., Drury L., Bray S., (1996), 'The Future of the UK Professional Associations', Cheltenham Strategic Publications, Bristol University

Watkins J., (1999), 'UK professional associations and continuing professional development: a new direction?', International Journal of Lifelong Education, Vol 18, No. 1, pp. 61-75

White E., (2002), Continuing professional Development a Pilot Study', The European Journal of Oriental Medecine, Vol. 3, No. 6, pp 31-41

Whittington R., McNulty T., and Whipp R. (1994), 'Market -driven change in professional services: problems and processes' , Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 31,No.6,pp.64-80

Williams C., (1999), 'Different Strokes', People Management, 28 October 1999, page 95
Williams C., (2001), 'Training the Trainer: a perspective of CPD from the CIPD', Training Journal, September 2001 (CPD Special Issue) pp. 12-13

Wilson R., (1996), 'Review of the economy and employment: future employment prospects for the highly qualified', Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick

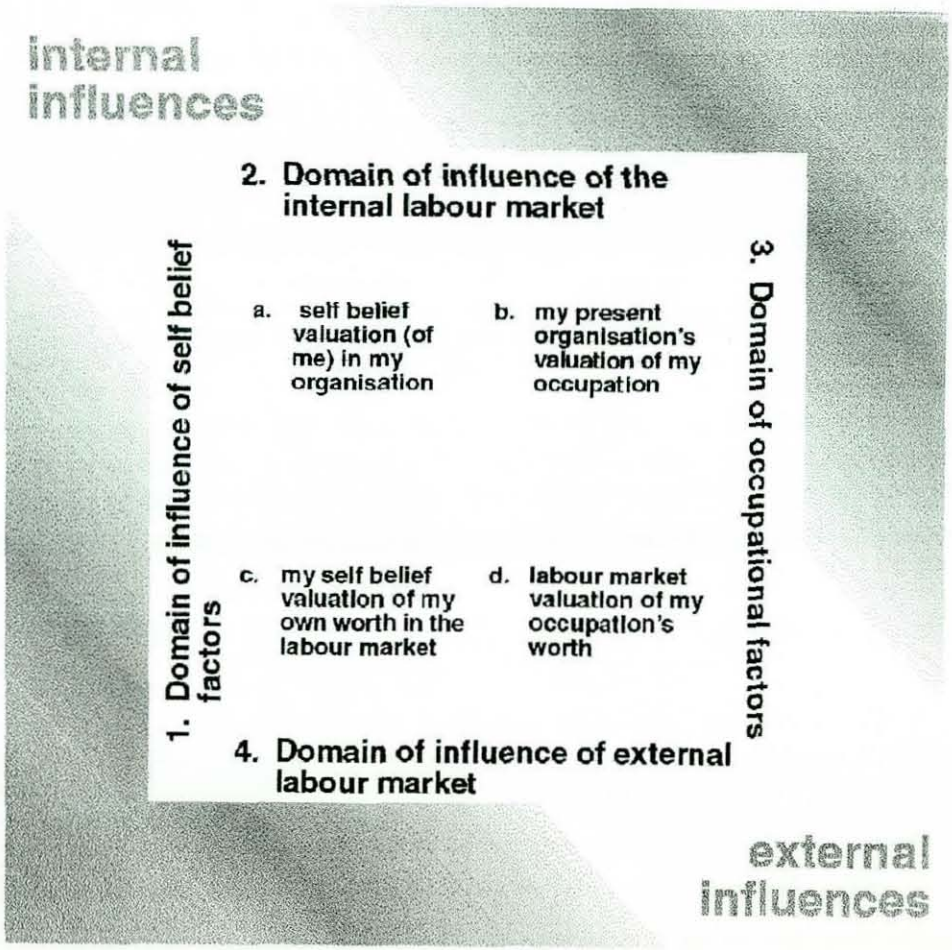
Wilson D., (2001), 'Human Capital?', Training Journal, CPD Special Issue, September 2001, page 33.

Zahra S., (1984), 'Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment, an integrative approach, Akron Business and Economic Review,Vol. 15, No.1,pp. 26-32

APPENDICES

LIST OF CONTENTS 348

Appendix 1: Internal and External Influences on Employability



Appendix 2: Exploratory Interviews: Questions

QUESTIONS: INTERVIEWS

Introduction: Discuss recording, duration, (30-45 mins), confidentiality, anonymity.

Section 1. About yourself:

1. Your age:

2. M/F

3. Your job title:

4. What type of organisation do you work in?

5. What is the name of your professional organisation?

6. What is your level of membership (eg. associate, fellow, 'stage 2 by examination')

7. Other than your professional qualification, what are your two highest levels of qualification (eg. 'A' levels, Honours Degree, MBA), and what subject(s)?

8. Are you presently working towards a qualification related to your profession? If so, please describe it.

SECTION 2: WORK COMMITMENT

9. Please describe the place that work takes in your life as a whole.

10. Which do you identify the most with, your work organisation or your profession? Do you say 'I do.....x', or 'i work for.....y'

11. Is it better to be committed to your employing organisation or to your profession - or to both? Is there likely to be a greater commitment to one or the other? Explain your answer.

12. What do you think will happen to your work organisation in the next 10 years?

SECTION 3: AS A PROFESSIONAL PERSON

13. When you describe yourself as a professional person, what does this mean to you?

14. What do you think this says about you, to other people? What is the 'place of the professional person in society?' How is your profession regarded in society?

15. As a professional, do other people trust you more than other (non-professional) occupational groups? If so, why - if not, why not?

16. Within your work organisation, how is your professional group regarded? Does it have high or low status in the organisation? How influential is your professional group in terms of strategic decision making?

SECTION 4; YOUR PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION

17. Networking: Do you attend branch meetings of your professional organisation? Do you fulfil any duties and responsibilities for your professional organisation? What are these? What do you do in any way that associates you with the professional organisation (eg. reading a professional journal)

18. Do you network with professionals in your area/region? If you were looking for another job, would your professional network help you?

PROFESSIONAL LEARNING:

19. What sort of professional learning do you engage in: eg. attending courses towards professional institute examinations, C.P.D. you arrange and direct yourself, learning from other colleagues at work, and why did you choose this method of learning over others?

20. What is your motivation for engaging in professional learning, professional development, qualification based updating and the things you have described above?

21. If you stopped learning profession/job related skills and knowledge today, how quickly would your knowledge and skills become out of date to the extent that you couldn't do your job anymore?

22. What are the barriers that inhibit your professional learning and development - both inside and outside the workplace?

23. What do you see as the priority items for learning and development for members of your profession over the next 20 years?

24. What do you understand by the word 'employability'?

25. Do you feel that your professional learning and development enhances your 'employability' - eg. your ability to move organisation should you wish to do so - or your ability to be retained by your present organisation? Why is this?

26. Are there any other comments you would wish to make in connection with your professional membership, your work in an organisation, or your learning and development?

27. Are there any concerns you have about this interview process?

Appendix 3: The Survey Questionnaire

CPD QUESTIONNAIRE:

Please answer the following questions but do not write your name on this questionnaire.

2. Your gender M F 3. Your age in years

4. Which professional organisation are you a member of?

5. What is your level of membership and designation: (eg: Corporate member, MCIPD)

6. What date did you reach your present level of professional membership?.....

7. What is your highest level of qualification apart from your professional qualification? (tick / or 'x' one)

1.*GCSE/Intermediate GNVQ/OLevels*
2. HND/C or equivalent
3. MA/MBA/MSc
4. 'A' levels/Advanced GNVQ/NVQ
5. BA/BSc
6. Ph.D or equivalent
7. CMS/DMS or equivalent
8.

Other.....

8. In what year did you complete this?

9. What is your job title?

10. How long have you worked in your professional field?

11. How would you describe your employment status? (tick/ or x)

[ ] *full time* [ ] *part time* [ ] self employed

[ ] portfolio worker [ ] career break [ ] other..... (Please explain)

12. If you are employed, what are the characteristics of your work organisation? (tick / or 'x' as appropriate) If you are not employed in an organisation, skip to question 14

Sector	Public	Size	500 employees or fewer
	Private		Greater than 500 employees

13. Which of these most closely describes your position in your employing organisation (tick / or x one)

1. [ ] *I have strategic decision making responsibility*
2. [ ] I am a senior officer in the organisation with substantial resource management responsibility
3. [ ] I am responsible for the work of a number of colleagues and have influence across the organisation
4. [ ] I have first line management responsibility for a group of staff in my work area
5. [ ] My role in this organisation is primarily at an operational level
6. [ ] Other: what is your position?.....

Please score the following questions on a five point scale

strongly disagree (SD) , disagree (D) neither agree nor disagree (N), agree (A) to strongly agree (SA)

CROSS 'X' ONE ON EACH LINE

		SD	D	N	A	SA
14.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help make my profession successful.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
15.	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working in areas that are associated with this profession.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
16.	I find that my values and my profession's values are very similar.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
17.	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this profession.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
18.	Being a member of this profession really inspires the best in me in the way of job performance.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
19.	I am extremely glad I chose this profession over others I was considering at the time I joined.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
20...	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this profession's policies on important matters relating to its members.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
21.	I really care about the fate of this profession.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
22.	For me this is the best of all professions to be a member of.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
23.	CPD can enhance my employability and career prospects	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
24.	CPD has benefits to my employer or organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
25.	CPD is important because of the changing nature of my work	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
26.	CPD is not just another chore, it has significant benefits for me	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
27.	CPD will improve my job performance	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
28.	CPD will improve my job and career prospects	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
29.	Engaging in CPD activities has a motivating effect on me	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
30.	It's worth making an effort on CPD because of the beneficial outcomes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

PLEASE USE THE SCALE: STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD), DISAGREE (D), NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE (N), AGREE (A), STRONGLY AGREE (SA): 'X' ONE ON EACH LINE

		SD	D	N	A	SA
31.	There are rewards for continuing my professional development	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
32.	I could not engage in CPD if there was a cost which I had to pay myself	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
33.	It is very rare for anyone in my family to reach my level of professional achievement	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
34.	My employer gives me financial support and /or time off to support my CPD	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
35..	My personal and family commitments limit my ability to engage in CPD	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
36.	I am happy to engage in CPD on a voluntary basis	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
37.	I really feel there are benefits to be gained from CPD	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
38.	I have good prospects in this organisation because my employer values my personal contribution	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
39.	Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
40.	My personal networks in this organisation help me in my career	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
41	I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organ -isation even if they are different to what I do now	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
42.	The skills I have gained in my present job are trans- -ferable to other occupations outside this organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
43.	I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
44.	I can use my professional networks and business contacts to develop my career	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
45.	I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
46.	Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

PLEASE USE THE SCALE STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD), DISAGREE (D), NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE (N), AGREE (A), STRONGLY AGREE (SA): 'X' ONE ON EACH LINE

		SD	D	N	A	SA
47.	People who do the same job as me who work in this organisation are valued highly	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
48.	If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
49.	People who do a job like mine in organisations similar to the one I presently work in are really in demand by other organisations	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
50.	I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
51.	Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
52.	I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
53.	People with my kind of job-related experience are very highly valued in their organisation and outside whatever sort of organisation they have previously worked in	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
54.	I am in a position to do mostly work I really like	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
55.	My job title is indicative of my progress and my responsibility in the organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
56.	I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
57	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
58.	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my overall career goals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
59	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
60.	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
61.	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

The following questions will help you to identify what activities you have engaged in, in relation to your CPD in the last twelve months. Indicate your choice by a (/ or (x), using the following:

Never used for my CPD	Rarely used for my CPD	Occasionally used for my CPD	Quite often used for my CPD	Frequently used for my CPD
NEV	**RAR**	**OCC**	**QUI**	**FREQ**

		NEV	RAR	OCC	QUI	FREQ
62.	Learning through practising the rules and procedures of my work organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
63.	Learning professional knowledge eg. CIPD professional codes of practice	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
64.	Acquiring generic transferable skills and competencies related to my job	{]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
65.	Undertaking academic study that isn't necessarily related to my job or profession	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
66.	Acquiring knowledge through browsing websites or 'surfing the net'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
67.	Exchanging emails on professional topics with other CIPD members	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
68.	Taking part in an online discussion forum relevant to my profession	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
69.	Keeping a reflective diary over an extended period of time	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
70.	Reflective discussions with colleagues as part of a formal development review process	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
71.	Reflective discussions with colleagues that are informal but still relevant to the profession	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
72.	My employer's internal training courses	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
73.	External courses my employer has paid for	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
74.	My employer's open learning provision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
75.	Technical training eg. courses where I am learning how to use new computer software	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
76.	Working towards a vocational qualification where I am sponsored by my employer	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
77.	Working towards a vocational qualification which I am paying for myself	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
78.	Participating in internal secondments or transfers at my place of work	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
79.	Learning through informal teamwork in the worklplace	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Please score the following items using the scale as above, ie. 'Never used for my CPD' (NEV), 'Rarely used for my CPD' (RAR), 'Occasionally used for my CPD' (OCC), 'Quite often used for my CPD' (QUI), 'Frequently used for my CPD' (FREQ).

		NEV	RAR	OCC	QUI	FREQ
80.	Sharing knowledge with colleagues	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
81.	Action learning: learning from development projects	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
82.	Membership of committees at my place of work eg. quality, health and safety	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
83.	Reading work-related documents from my organisation	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
84.	Keeping a portfolio record of CPD activities I have undertaken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
85.	Regular reading of journals and books relevant to my profession	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
86.	Authorship of technical papers (internal or external to the organisation)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
87	Attending CIPD branch meetings regularly.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
88.	Membership of commitees relevant to CIPD	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
89.	Full or Part time teaching in a subject area related to my profession	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
90.	Other personal activities outside of work eg. hobbies, scouts/guides, community or religious organisations, voluntary activities	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
91.	Learning that is carefully planned in advance	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
92.	Spontaneous learning arising from work or personal activities	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
93.	Other activity (say what this is)_____	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
94	Other activity (say what this is)_____	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

95 What is the main professional or work related area, competence or skill that you wish to develop during the next few years?

96. **Please use this space for any other comments you may have in respect of your CPD, how you feel about your employability, your profession or your career.**

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. THE RESPONSES WILL BE SUMMARISED FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES. IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT THIS RESEARCH, OR IF YOU WOULD LIKE TO RECEIVE A SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH WHEN IT IS COMPLETED, PLEASE EMAIL: A.T.Rothwell@derby.ac.uk

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE USING THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED

APPENDIX 4: Listing of responses to the 'any other items' comments

In the listing below the numbering relates to the SPSS ID of the respondent. The following are the responses to the question:
'Please use this space for any other comments you may have in respect of your CPD, how you feel about your employability, your profession or your career.'

1. Whilst I am keen to continue to develop my skills I recognise that my current employer no longer sees a 51 year old as promotable hence my responses to your questions

4. This is an odd time to complete this as *[organisation]* has just made a large number of people redundant. I kept my job. I am well thought of by some people others don't like my independent spirit and the fact I complained of sexual harassment and bullying by my then line manager. He has since been promoted. Old boys rule! I have been off work since ----- with ----- and no indication of when I will return. This, clearly, affects my employability in the future hence the answer to some of your questions. The Director of ---- (I moved to avoid the bully) is very supportive ..... [female, 51]

9. I do the CPD, recording and writing it all up is another matter!

14. It is still almost impossible to work part time/job share at a senior level. I have been forced to take a side-ways/downward move to accommodate my family responsibility. [female 37]

17. I am currently seconded to the aforementioned position and see this as the first step towards a management role. The experience is invaluable, but I hope that the development is recognised [female 27, job title 'marketing manager - recruitment']

45. My attitude to work is fairly hard headed. It is a business contract. I could do other things. [male, 49]

48. Some of the questions do not apply to me or to people who have gained a professional qualification in one field or moved on to another field. [Male 55]

51. I'm quite into the theory of CPD but it's hard to make it fit with time pressures etc. It's also hard to work out how to achieve some of it eg. business consultancy skills - how can I work on those? [female 26]

54. Development/learning new stuff to move our business forward/meet legislative requirements is great. Recording it to satisfy my professional organisation is tedious/a time waster. [female 43]

55. I have worked all my life (thus far) in the public sector. I think at my age the transferability of my skills are much less likely to be achievable in the private sector. Any transfer is also likely to result in a reduction in earnings. [male 50]

60. One has to remain flexible when considering career moves. All too often expectations cannot be realised because of individuals getting confused over ambition and capability. [male 55]

62. In my industry (rail engineering) CPD tends to remove the employer's responsibility to provide resources for employee development ie. training, coaching etc. and places too much emphasis on the employee's responsibility [male 53]

64. CIPD make this process far too formal - which leads people to concentrate on training opportunities at the expense of development opportunities. No follow up on process - a paper led exercise [female 29]

71. Although my qualifications and experience mean that I have advanced to a high level in my career I sometimes feel that my age/sex are now barriers to progression. When will employers value personnel professionals! [female 49]

77. These answers relate to my current position. I start a new job in the new year with more '£', more responsibility and more prospects. I am leaving local government after 8 years because morale is low and prospects remote. Increased outsourcing will result in reduced need for support staff such as personnel in the next few years [male 38]

93. Have interpreted CPD as the development activity itself rather than a particular method of recording it or even if it's recorded at all! If it was the recording method, then my answers probably would be different re benefits and value [male 41]

103. included a letter.....
Gentlemen,
The questionnaire is not immensely relevant:-

1. I retired last year after 42 years with 'my' company
2. I remain a consultant (my office, desk PA are still there)
3. I also chair a voluntary organisation I grew from the company with a world-wide membership
4. I am also a consultant to a specialist publisher
5. Negotiation is still in process over my becoming a consultant to a major European car manufacturer
6. added to which a 'head-hunting' agency has recently asked if I would be prepared to serve as a non-executive Director of a European aerospace and motor manufacturer

I am also chairman of one association, vice president of two, a member of council of another association and chairman of one of its advisory committees. I am also on the HR board of advisors of an America society centred in Florida.
Sincerely..... [male 64]

105 Some questions are not applicable to one man business, self employed part time professional consultant. [male 57] (also no's, 108,)

106. I don't care a fig for formalised CPD and the need to evidence it to satisfy CIPD requirements. I've always been successful without CPD or the CIPD. I'm not ambitious - I just want to be happy and stress free - and I am! [female 47]

112. I believe that breadth and depth of experience and successful career changes within the relevant field should be more readily recognised as CPD. Operating in different cultures with different target groups at a professional level is demanding and hard on CPD. [female 42]

115. More use should be made of older workers. They are a resource that should not and cannot be ignored [male 58]

116. HR still poorly paid in relation to other 'board' positions. Does not get viewed as 'core business' and legislation can be seen by board as an annoyance. [female 34]

117. CPD should have more formal accreditation within the Institute [male 46]

126. Personnel must become a true support function to ensure operational areas deliver. [male 35]

127. I don't remember actively engaging in CPD. I have only attended three IPD meetings in my career [male 51]

140. CIPD is pretty irrelevant to my career, doesn't assist my 'CPD' [male 41]

142. Still finding age is a barrier to achieving within HR/training as I came late to the profession [female 49]

146. I would like to participate in branch activities but they always occur in the south of the county! Working long hours makes attendance difficult [female 35]

148. The recording of it (CPD?) is time consuming and not 'value added' [male, no age]

154. I am in the rare position of having both taxation and CIPD professions side by side therefore my CPD covers both areas but my work choices are probably limited to tax [female 47]

157. My age is against me - I feel I am interviewed because I match the person spec. but organisations find a reason not to employ me! [female 55]

160. Next week's lottery numbers! [male 42]

161. membership benefits largely from information/ideas from magazine features. [male 65]

163. I believe CPD is important but believe it is my responsibility so that I can act as a professional HR manager, but not so that I can be employed elsewhere. Of course the latter comes indirectly by the former [male 38]

169. My age and experience should maintain my current position [male 52]

173. I have only a max. of 8 years to work and a minimum of three so development is not seen as a long term activity. I have had to develop skills following a job change and redundancy and have coped well. I was lucky to anticipate a departure and maintain my skills and more importantly credibility to enable an opportune job change last summer. Keep up all your skills even if some do not seem immediately relevant to your present post. You never know what opportunities are around the corner to use these - or enforced job changes! [female 56]

177. One key factor, which affects employability, is 'age' [male, age not stated]

178. I find CPD a chore due to a very busy lifestyle both at work and at home. An easy way of maintaining a record would be useful. [female 36]

183. CPD is OK for ongoing development but I don't think it enhances my career because my employer doesn't recognise its value. It only wants you to know, what it wants you to know. [male 47]

185. My comments about CPD may seem negative but this is because I generally pursue knowledge for its own sake rather than for professional reasons [female 50]

193. Continuing professional development, and a maximising achievement 3 day seminar have been and continue to be key in my career advancement and onward progression [female 38]

194. I have an extensive range of experience however I find now that I am past 50 my age is against progression in many organisations. Lack of development opportunities in my own organisation. [female 52]

197. Sadly CPD cannot overcome the ageism still found in industry. At 52 I regard myself as unemployable if this role ever finished! [male 52]

202. Please note questions 70-79 [= *CPD engagement*] presume there is an opportunity for this in an organisation. In my own organisation there is not. This is also applicable to some other questions. [female 44]

203. CPD is essential - even if not documented formally or in great detail, as it provides a realistic summary of previous achievements and future professional planning requirements [female 31]

204. Feel quite happy to complete the CPD process and see this as my opportunity to reflect and consider my development needs rather than a career approach for employability. [female, age not stated]

208. Difficult to transfer from public to private sectors as employers believe you to be institutionalised! [female 38]

214. I have a real concern that some of your data may attract the 'wrong' answers - because I assumed that the phrase 'used for my CPD' referred to a structured/documented requirement (in terms of my CPD). In fact, I record nothing and

bumble along learning what I want in a haphazard fashion. If you did something similar again, you might welcome greater clarity between what is actually 'documented' in terms of learning - as required by the CIPD, as opposed to my more casual (and very unprofessional) approach. Finally thanks for taking this on, I hope you get some good data. [male 49]

216. Very few HR opportunities are part-time [female 39]

219. This questionnaire is directed at personnel professionals who are employed by organisations not self-employed trainers like myself. I feel the CIPD has forgot it absorbed the ITD!!! The questions are in the main irrelevant to me - but I have completed them for a laugh! I think a redesigned questionnaire that encompasses all the full membership and does not discriminate against our 'ethnic minority trainers' might be in order? [male 49]

222. I worked 50-60 hours a week plus 10 hours travel. *(respondent is unemployed)* I could do more CPD but I was the only HR person in my job and was 'on the board' in all but name (my choice) [male 48]

225. In future please supply questions relevant to those members who are self employed. This is a sector under-represented by the CIPD. [female 36]

232. Conventional CPD is difficult for older members at end of working life. Would like to see a different focus for us - on mentoring and coaching others. [female 56]

APPENDIX 5:

'WHAT IS THE MAIN PROFESSIONAL OR WORK RELATED AREA, COMPETENCE OR SKILL THAT YOU WISH TO DEVELOP DURING THE NEXT FEW YEARS?'

The following responses are identified by SPSS ID number followed by the response.

116. Strategic HRM - balancing the spilt between operational and strategic management
117. Negotiating Skills
118. Strategic Policy and Project work
119. Management of staff
121. IT, Spreadsheets etc.
122. European employment law
123. Counselling skills, European directives and Law
124. Equality issues
125 Change Management, coaching
126. Strategic decision making
127. I'm due to retire in three and a half years
128. TUPE (employment law), skills to negotiate with unions, develop presentation skills in readiness for works councils
129. Job evaluation, benefits and pensions
130. Training but not sure of subject matter!
132. Increased organisational development tools and practices
134. Expertise in employment law and relations
136. I am undertaking an MSc in Training and HR Management to enhance ability in strategic issues.
137. Coaching and mentoring skills
139. Retirement planning *(age 40 so inferred as 'of others')*
140. Leadership of an entrepreneurial team which will transform an underperforming organisation
141. I wish to retire
142. Training/teaching
144. Succession planning, assessment/development centres, psychometric testing
146. Negotiating skills with trade unions - help!
149. Strategic HR
150. Facilitation skills
151. I want to develop my strategic planning skills
152. Executive coaching
154. International tax, diversity
157. I am teaching Certificate of Personnel Practice and need a teaching qualification.
158. Counselling
159. Compensation/benefits/reward
160. Influencing others
161. I retire in October
164. Organisational development
165. Pay strategy and remuneration policies.
167. Job evaluation

168. Mentoring and coaching
169. To maintain a level of knowledge that is current to the employment scene
171. Change management and leadership development
172. Project management and IT
173. Foreign language skills
174. More strategic approach
175. Working in the private sector, becoming more marketable
176. Assessing Doctoral presentations
177. Change management/business strategies
178. Change management/policy development
179. Experience in TUPE, union negotiation, improved IT skills
180. Strategic Human Resource Planning
181. Quality assurance
182. Training and Development
183. Leadership Development, executive coaching
184. Training design and delivery
185. Complexity theory
186. Enhanced IT skills
187. More knowledge of European Employment Law
188. Blue skies forward thinking
189. Strategic management
190. Managing change
191. Developing the strategic development of senior managers
192. Work/life balance
193. Management development activity
196. Strategic planning and consultancy skills
197. More on European Employment legislation
201. Strategic approach to HR
202. More computer related knowledge
203. Ensuring legal/legislative aspects of professional requirements are maintained, finding time to achieve workload!
204. PC skills, broader business operations development
205. Reward management
206. Employment law
207. To keep up to date and to be aware of constantly changing employment law!
208. Move to legal expertise
209. Provision of HR consultancy to small organisations on work-life balance, create links with FE colleges in Nottingham to improve recruitment
210 Human Resources, health and safety
213. Neuro-Linguistic programming (NLP), occupational assessment
215. Business development
216. Updating knowledge on employment law and employment practices since taking a career break in 1996
220. Marketing, management of teams
221. Coaching
222. Languages (improve my French and German)
224. How to retire gradually
225. IT, psychometrics
227. Networking, marketing

228. Counselling skills, facilitation skills
229. Retirement skills!
230. Training and development
231. Improvement in design and delivery of e-learning programmes
232. Examining skills - I'm currently an external examiner for *[named university]*. I'm interested in developing younger professionals
233. NLP skills

Appendix 6: Principal Components Analysis: Employability Scale

Correlation Matrix

	EMP1	EMP2	EMP3	EMP4	EMP5	EMP6	EMP7	EMP8	EMP9	EMP1	EMP1	EMP1	EMP1	EMP1	EMP1	EMP1
Correl EMP	1.000	.528	.421	.441	.256	.109	.336	.071	.278	.431	.247	.233	.238	.313	.347	.298
EMP	.528	1.000	.482	.482	.268	.255	.253	.230	.347	.360	.380	.219	.281	.339	.333	.211
EMP	.421	.482	1.000	.428	.348	.271	.414	.200	.380	.321	.220	.211	.115	.347	.223	.238
EMP	.441	.482	.428	1.000	.378	.212	.309	.188	.239	.303	.266	.137	.232	.290	.217	.231
EMP	.256	.268	.348	.378	1.000	.413	.362	.324	.207	.255	.339	.341	.219	.396	.244	.386
EMP	.109	.255	.271	.212	.413	1.000	.329	.394	.211	.115	.356	.262	.216	.371	.325	.337
EMP	.336	.253	.414	.309	.362	.329	1.000	.432	.233	.366	.295	.431	.255	.344	.277	.391
EMP	.071	.230	.200	.188	.324	.394	.432	1.000	.256	.219	.329	.346	.273	.331	.406	.333
EMP	.278	.347	.380	.239	.207	.211	.233	.256	1.000	.352	.230	.222	.217	.303	.323	.234
EMP	.431	.360	.321	.303	.255	.115	.366	.219	.352	1.000	.266	.415	.179	.338	.235	.388
EMP	.247	.380	.220	.266	.339	.356	.295	.329	.230	.266	1.000	.319	.684	.519	.486	.314
EMP	.233	.219	.211	.137	.341	.262	.431	.346	.222	.415	.319	1.000	.395	.462	.306	.584
EMP	.238	.281	.115	.232	.219	.216	.255	.273	.217	.179	.684	.395	1.000	.449	.380	.372
EMP	.313	.339	.347	.290	.396	.371	.344	.331	.303	.338	.519	.462	.449	1.000	.381	.498
EMP	.347	.333	.223	.217	.244	.325	.277	.406	.323	.235	.486	.306	.380	.381	1.000	.345
EMP	.298	.211	.238	.231	.386	.337	.391	.333	.234	.388	.314	.584	.372	.498	.345	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1151.995
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

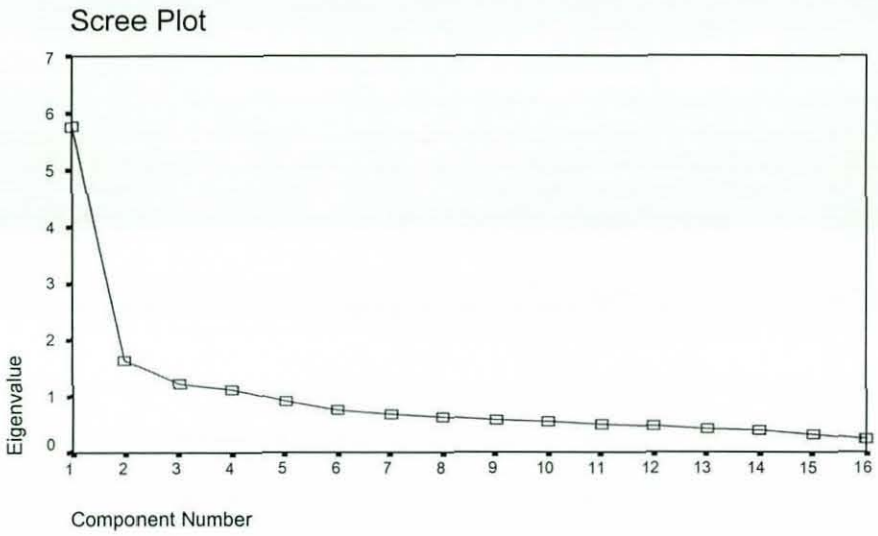
	Initial	Extraction
EMP1	1.000	.663
EMP2	1.000	.663
EMP3	1.000	.629
EMP4	1.000	.552
EMP5	1.000	.515
EMP6	1.000	.659
EMP7	1.000	.545
EMP8	1.000	.544
EMP9	1.000	.312
EMP10	1.000	.641
EMP11	1.000	.776
EMP12	1.000	.731
EMP13	1.000	.755
EMP14	1.000	.550
EMP15	1.000	.491
EMP16	1.000	.659

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.762	36.012	36.012	5.762	36.012	36.012
2	1.622	10.139	46.151	1.622	10.139	46.151
3	1.198	7.489	53.640	1.198	7.489	53.640
4	1.103	6.894	60.534	1.103	6.894	60.534
5	.910	5.687	66.222			
6	.738	4.612	70.834			
7	.664	4.148	74.981			
8	.612	3.823	78.804			
9	.555	3.468	82.272			
10	.530	3.312	85.584			
11	.497	3.109	88.694			
12	.476	2.974	91.668			
13	.409	2.559	94.227			
14	.379	2.370	96.598			
15	.317	1.982	98.580			
16	.227	1.420	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
EMP14	.711			
EMP11	.662		-.492	
EMP16	.652			-.316
EMP7	.630		.383	
EMP12	.622	-.310		-.421
EMP2	.620	.441		
EMP15	.610			
EMP5	.599			
EMP13	.582	-.367	-.513	
EMP3	.580	.480		
EMP10	.576			-.465
EMP1	.576	.505		
EMP8	.552	-.330		
EMP4	.550	.453		
EMP6	.535			.524
EMP9	.512			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 4 components extracted.